ETHNIC SETTLEMENTS IN ANCIENT INDIA

(A study on the Puranic Lists of the Peoples of Bharatavarsa)

PART I—NORTHERN INDIA

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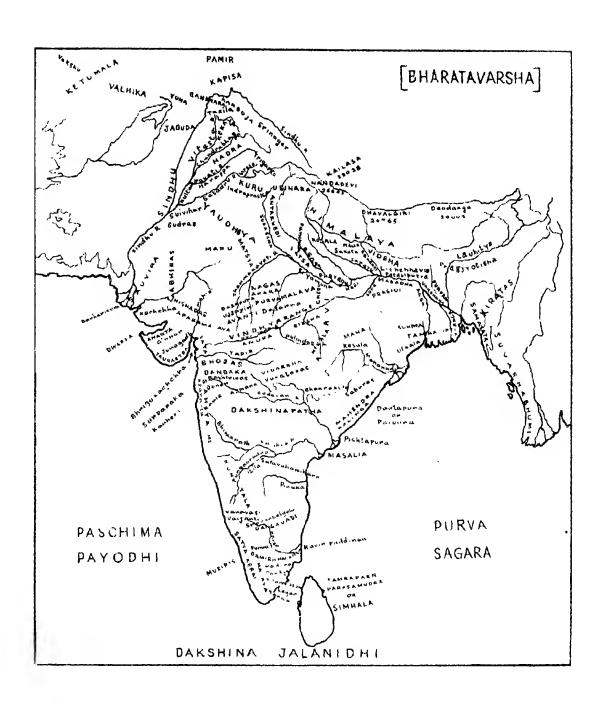
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TO
MY
FATHER



PREFACE

The present work which forms a part of the thesis completed by the author as early as 1946 could not be published so long for unavoidable reasons.

The author is deeply indebted to Dr. R. C. Majumdar who guided him in his work and inspired him with all possible help including the Foreword which introduces the book. He is grateful to Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri for valuable instructions in putting the work to shape. His acknowledgements are also due to Dr. Nihar Ranjan Roy for the kind interest he has taken throughout the whole production of the book.

Much as the author would have liked to make the work free from errors, it could not be done: misprints of diacritical marks and other mistakes still remain. The kind attention of readers is invited to the Index where a standard form of ancient geographical expressions referred to in the work has been offered.

The author takes this opportunity to acknowledge with thanks the financial assistance received from the Government of West Bengal towards the publication of the book. He is also thankful to Sri Suresh Chandra Das, the Managing Director, General Printers and Publishers Ltd. for the generous offer of bearing a considerable portion of the publication expense.

Presidency College, Calcutta: October 17, 1954.

FOREWORD

It is a well-known fact that the ancient Hindus did not write the history of their own country. But their literature contains valuable data for a study of this subject. Among these may be mentioned the list of tribes and peoples which we find in the Epics and the Purāṇas. A critical study of these data is bound to throw important light on the distribution of peoples in ancient India as well as their movements. Such a study also forms the real basis of the historical geography of ancient India, as the geographical names of large areas were mostly derived from those of the ethnic groups who occupied them.

The importance of this line of study was realised at an early stage of the progress of Indology, and several European scholars dealt with the subject. But such study was mostly confined to the data turnished by individual texts. The need of collaborating such data from all available texts has long been felt, but the subject has not engaged the serious attention of scholars.

Dr. S. B. Chaudhuri has boldly attempted the task in the following pages which earned him a Doctor's Degree. They reveal an elaborate study of scattered material carried out with thoroughness and a high degree of critical ability. He has studied the ethnic settlements referred to in the literary and epigraphical sources, in their proper geographical setting, and tried to reconstruct the historical geography of ancient India in one of its most important aspects. He has made a critical scrutiny of the various forms in which the names appear in different texts and tried to restore the correct and original designation as far as possible. As the author has himself stated, his first aim was to present a corrected and revised list of ethnic and geographical names of the different regions of India as furnished by tradition. He has next attempted to find out how far these names can

be regarded as authentic, or, in other words, whether peoples bearing those names actually resided, at any time, in the regions indicated in the literary texts, though many of them went out of use in later periods.

The author deserves credit for his general survey of the peoples of ancient India in relation to their activities, habitats and geographical environment. In the concluding chapter the author has sketched in outline the ever changing and widening course of geography suggested by the materials collected in the preceding chapters. This is an important study, on a somewhat novel line, and is sure to be developed with the progress of our knowledge.

On the whole the book throws very valuable light on an obscure branch of ancient Indian history, and will, I hope, commend itself to all serious students of Indian history.

R. C. MAJUMDAR.

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Charte						

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abhidhāna	Abhidhāna-cintāmaņi of Hemacandra, ed. by Hargovindas, Vidya-Vijaya Press, Bhavnagar, Veer Era 2441, published by Nathalal Vakil.
ABORI	Annals of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute.
Λl	Alberum's India ed by Dr. Edward C. Sachau, London, Kegan Paul,
***	1910
AIA	Am-1-Akbari by Abul Fazl, Translated by Colonel H S Jarret, pub-
	hshed by Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta 1891.
ΛHIT	Ancient Indian Historical Tradition by F E Pargiter, Oxford Univer-
	sity Press, 1922.
$\Lambda M KLP$	Aryst-manjustr-mülakolpas Trevandrum Sanskrit Series, ed. by MM
	T Ganapate Sastri, 1920.
AR	Archa ological Survey of India, Annual Report
ΔS	Arthasastra of Kautilya, Trans by Dr. R. Shamasastry, 1929, Third
	Edn. Mysore.
B11	Life of Hinen Tsang by S. Beal,
BR	Buddhist Records of the Western World by S. Beal, 1884
CAG1	Cummphan's An ient Geography of India, ed by S N Mazumdar,
	1921.
CCAI	Catalogue of the Cems of Ancient India, by John Allan, London, 1936.
CH	Cambudge History of India (Vol. 1).
CH	Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum.
CJ	The Jataka, ed by Prof. E B. Cowell, Cambridge University Press, 1895.
$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{L}$	Carmichael Lectures, by Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar, 1918.
DD	Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediæval Tudia, by N. L. Dø. Luzac, 1927
DHNI	The Dynastic History of Northern India, by Dr. H. C. Roy, Calcutta
	University Press, 1931.
DKDI	Die Kosmographie der Inder, Von Dr. W. Kirfel, Leipzig, 1920.
DUBH	The History of Bengal, Vol. I. Hindu Period, ed by Dr. R. Q.
	Majumdar, published by the University of Dacca, 1943
EHI	Smith, Early History of India. (1921)
EI	Epigraphia Indica
FIB	Etude Sur L'Iconographie Bouddhque de L'Inde Par 'A Foucher,
	Paris, 1900
GDRD	The Geographical data of the Righuvainsa and Dasakumaracarita, by
	Mark Collius, Leipzig, 1907
Gloseary	A Glossary of the Tribes and Castes of the Punjan and North-West
	Frontier Province, 'Civil and Military Gazette Press,' Lahore, 1914.
HAIB	Historical Aspects of the Ibiscriptions of Bengal, by Dr. B. C. Sen,
	Calcutta University, 1943.
HV	Harivamia, Bangavāsi edition
JA	Indian Antiquary.
IC	Indian Culture.
147	

The Imperial Gazetteer of India, New edition, Oxford, Clarendon Press.

1G

1908.

JAHRS The Quarterly Journal of the Andhra Historical Research Society.

JDL Journal of the Department of Letters, Calcutta University Press.

KAVYA Kāvyamīmāmsā of Rhjušekhara, Grekwad's Oriental Series No. 1, Baroda, 1924.

KSSR The Kathā-Sant-Sāgara, Translated by C. II Tawney, Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta, 1880

MA Ancient India as described in classical literature by J. W. McCrindle, 1901.

Mbh Mahabhārata (Bangayāsi edn.).

Mbh (B) Mahābhārata, ed by Mahamahopadhyaya Haridas Siddhantabagrs, published by the author from 41, Suri Lane, Calcutta

M1 The Invasion of India by Alexander the Great, by J. W. McCrudle; MDCCCXCIII

MM Ancient India as described by Megasthenes and Arrian, by J. W. McCrindle; 1926

MP The Markandeya Purana, F. F. Pargiter, Bibliothera Indica, 1904.

M. Polo The Book of Ser Marco Polo, ed by Cordier, London, John Murray. 1903.

MT McCrudle's Ancient Judia, as described by Ptolemy, ed. by S. N. Mazumdar Sastri, Calentta, 1927

NHH Notes on the History of the Humalaya of the NWP, India, by E. T. Atkinson, BCS, St. Leonards-on-Sen, 1883

NIHP A New History of the Indian People, Vol. VI. Edited by Dr. R. C. Majumdar and Dr. A. S. Altekar, 1946

PHAL Political History of Ancient India, by H. C. Ray Chaudhura, 1938.

RT Kalhana's Rājatarangmī, ed by M. A Stein

RV Rgyeda

Sh Select Inscriptions bearing on Indian History and Civilization, Vol. I, edited by Dinesh Chandra Sucar, M.A., Ph.D. Published by the University of Calcutta, 1942.

TAI Tribes in Ancient India, by B maia Churun Law Bhandarkar Oriental Series No. 4, First edition, Peona, 1943

TKS Trikāndašesa of Purusottim adeva, published by K Sri Krsnadas, printed at Venkateswara Press, Bombay, 1916

VJN The Varjayanti of Yadavaprakisa, ed. by Gustav Oppert, Ph D, and published for the Madras Sauskrit and Vernacular Text Publication Society, 1893.

VKS Kāmasūtram ed by Pancanan Tarkaratna, Bangayāsi Press, Cabailta. 1334 B.S.

YC On Yuan Chwang by T Watters, Royal Asiatic Society, 1904.

(Other abbreviations will be readily intelligible)

INTRODUCTION

Ethnic settlements in ancient India relate to the efforts of human societies and groups at the successive stages of the early civilization of India to mould and adapt the vast country to their use. The Indian sub-continent from the dim past was the home of many miscellaneous stocks of races and peoples who had come in ever-increasing numbers to settle here. Throughout the ancient period this movement of peoples presented a changing panorama—a variety of human groups shaping their destiny in their respective spheres, in a number of characteristic ways. Everywhere in India there was the evidence of man or groups of men who were inscribing themselves on the soil and adjusting themselves to the conditions of physical geography and other factors. This aspect of their activities offers some justification for an attempt to discover the correlations between human societies of India's past and their geographical setting in broad outline, even though the result may be only initial in character.

A detailed treatment of the extremely variable and miscellancous nature of the geographical conditions of ancient ethnic settlements of India throughout the ages is admittedly a difficult task, as materials are quite inadequate for extending an enquiry into the dim recesses of time, going back even thousands of years before Christ, and though archaeological evidences are quite plenty for the centuries following the Christian era, the picture of an Ethnographic Geography of ancient India at many points of time and in many regions remains obscure. Even so, a fairly good knowledge of the earliest stages of ethnic settlements in ancient India is obtained from ancient literature, and it is possible in this work only to refer to the distributions, not to speak of the activities, of ethnic groups which settled on Indian soil in the centuries before and after the commencement of the Chritian era.

The persistence of ethnic features in the geographical system was nowhere more clearly expressed than in ancient India. A good many of the countries of ancient India bore the impress of tribal or ethnic names, for the *Mahābhārata*, the Purāṇas and astronomical works which embody the greater part of ancient Indian geographical texts, and consequently form the chief sources of our subject, represent India as being inhabited by several tribes or peoples who gave their names to the particular regions where they settled. Indeed, this extensive geographical literature gives a remarkably full account

mainly of the tribes inhabiting the various regions of the whole subcontinent. Although no adequate proof is obtainable as to whether so many distinct ethnic groups lived on Indian soil, or whether it was the name of a country that determined the name of the people living there, it is clear that the treatment of such names in ancient Indian geographical tradition is ethnographical in character, though territorial names are by no means few.

In early traditions which are authentic and professedly geographical as in the Puranas, geographical names occur in the form of tribal or ethnic names, and so, like all early geography, the locality or country was known by the plural of the tribal name of the spread of Aryan culture as recorded in the Satapatha Brāhmana shows that Videha obtained its name from the settlement of the Videgha tribe who were led by their king Mathava when they pushed forward to the east from the Sarasvatī. Regarding another ethnic group a statement of Pānini runs to the effect that the word Pañcālāh denotes the country or kingdom which the Ksatriya tribe Pañcāla occupied. In his Astādhyāyī, we read of other country names with the suffix 'Ka', as in Malavaka, Rajanyaka, Traigartaka, Vasatika which shows that countries were called after their peoples, and that the ethnic structure of the population of different areas formed the basis of such names. In other texts, as in the Jātakas and in the Kāmasūtra of Vātsyāyana the reference is almost invariably to the name of the tribe or people. Even in the accounts of battle array, geographical names are noticed only as ethnic or tribal appellations. Thus being fashioned in this way, ethnic groups are treated as if they were so many viable units of the geographical order of ancient India. This traditional form of treatment of ancient Indian geography which may be called conventional, offers justification for the title of the present work.

The main idea of the ancient writers (as in the Purāṇas) in describing India was to furnish a list of peoples and races going under each of the several divisions into which the country was supposed to have been divided from a geographical point of view. The various tribes inhabiting this country, therefore, appear in the Purāṇic texts, as belonging to one or other division. This kind of treatment has the merit of being geographical in character, and inasmuch as the different regions of India constituted the underlying struture of this geographical survey, it seems desirable to place the grouping of chapters on a purely regional besis. Emphasis on the regional conception of geo-

graphy is also given in the astronomical texts, as, such an approach had the effect of drawing attention to all the many links uniting physical conditions and human establishments.

This line of study is not particularly a new one and indeed it was a subject that attracted the attention of the earliest of the foreign That great savant Alberuni was the first to make a catalogue of the divisional lists from a study of the Brhat-samhitā and the Puranas. At the hands of European scholars of the nineteenth century the subject received adequate attention. Kern edited the Brhat-Dr. Burgess suggested that the lists of geographical names contained in the Puranas should be prepared "as a means to the better elucidation of the ancient Geography of India," and furnished a list of such names (IA. XIV. 319ff). Following his suggestion Fleet prepared the different ethnographical lists based on Kern's work (IA. XXII. 169 ff). Later on J. E. Abbott compiled a list of such names from the $Bh\bar{a}gavata Pur\bar{a}_{B}a$ (IA. XXIII. 1-6). A remarkable contribution was subsequently made by Pargiter in his Mārkandeya Purāna where he added notes on the identity of the names occurring in that text. Dr. W. Kirfel has also set forth some of the divisional lists of ethnic and country names as supplied by the Puranas and the Brhat-Samhita, in his book Die Kosmographie der Inder. Yet, the subject remains to be treated in all its bearing. The number and the geographical applications of these territorial divisions and their relative position with regard to the ethnic names have not been investigated, and very little has been done to collate the different lists going under each division, as supplied by different streams of traditions, with a view to ascertaining as far as possible the original form and bearing of each of these tribal names. essential groundwork has to be prepared by a critical examination of the nature and structure of the lists as contained in the astromomical works and the Puranas which taken together represent geographical tradition best. Dr. D. C. Sircar has scrutinised the Purāņic lists (IHQ. XXI. 297 ff), but the text as a whole which he has set up, though plausible enough for a working hypothesis, cannot be regarded as conclusive as it is not corroborated in all its details by other texts.

The absence of a standard work in the field resulted in a tendency to take considerable liberty with all these names by writers on the subject who had utilised the texts, very often without any critical scrutiny according as they supported their proposition

The method, technique and the principle of scientific stratification so commendably employed by Pargiter in his Ancient Indian Historical Tradition could have been applied with equal success to the domain of 'geographical tradition'. Even Pargiter, so powerful a critic of ancient tradition took the Markandeya Purana's list of nations as they are without any scrutiny, and in many cases, as pointed out in this work, found difficulty with names which were unreal. Dr. Kirfel in his work on Indian Cosmography has left the lists (Die Volker Von Madhyadesa etc., DKDI, pp. 70-90) in much the same stage without any critical examination of their As his book is not a work on source, nature, and structure. geography he has not given any note on the identity of names forming the lists. The reading of the names given by him also differs in many cases from the readings shown in the lists of this work, which have been prepared independently of the charts framed by Dr. Kirfel, and on altogether a different plan as will be evident hereafter. Dr. B. C. Law's works on ancient Indian tribes are a highly valuable contribution to the subject, but he too, has not offered any criticism of the geographical texts from which he has selected his list of tribes. Textual corruptions in the reading of names which he seeks to identify have not been adequately scrutinised (cf. TAT, pp. 381-400) in all cases. Moreover, he has pursued his work mainly from the point of view of the tribes of ancient India as they were, without subjecting the treatment to any specific geographical plan. Indeed, the people of Bhāratavarṣa (Die Volker Bharata's, DKDI, p. 70 ff) appear in the Puranic lists only in their relevant geographical setting. This indicates that in ancient India the different human groups were regarded as so many essential units of a comprehensive geographical system-ethnography being treated as the baudmaid of geography: the facts of human activity and the conditions of physical order are not separately noticed but synthesised into one. So, the geographical plan according to which the tribes were distributed is a very fundamental point which should, in our opinion, constitute the basis of any scientific treatment of ancient tribes. The idea of the present work thus suggested itself and the author's first aim is, therefore, to present a corrected and revised list of ethnic and geographical names of the different regions of India as furnished by tradition.

The next question is to assess and determine the authenticity of these names. It must be acknowledged that there are considerable

limitations in that line. As tradition deals mostly with names which were swept out of use in the historical period of a later age it is fruitless to seek for authentic records to verify such names. Nevertheless, it has been shown that this comprehensive and elaborate plan of dividing India into several regions and supplying in each case a list of names of that particular area, was fairly accurate in view of India's early geographical condition. Trustworthy and relevant evidences from the whole range of ancient literature, Brahmanical and non-Brahmanical, and from the accounts of foreign writers European and Asiatic have been utilised to show the extent of support each of these names finds, in regard to its bearing and identity. And the whole mass of epigraphic evidence in so far as it refers to the geographical location of tribes and corroborates tradition, has been incorporated in this treatise. Notices of ethnic affinities and ethnographical details and other precious items of information have been properly set forth to make the survey complete.

It must, however, be admitted that some of the names are quite familiar to us and original investigations about their antiquity, and geographical background, have already been made by renowned scholars both European and Indian. But books devoted purely to ancient geography are very few and even then the standpoint taken does not meet all requirements. Lassen, V. D. St. Martin, Mc Crindle and others had taken the Greek accounts as the basis of their enquiries. The classic work of Sir Alexander Cunningham and the books of Watters and Beal had, on the other hand, the itinerary of the Chinese travellers as the source and object of study. The correct approach to the subject perhaps lies in making the indigenous accounts the basis of study, and in enquiring how far they agree with the description of the foreign writers. Possibilities of a work on ancient Indian geography on these lines are not inconsiderable and the present work, in spite of its obvious limitations, may supply a ground-work for further study in the field in future. So, in the present state of studies on the subject, a work on ancient Indian geographical tradition about ethnic settlements whose authenticity up to the widest possible extent has been sought to be proved by the testimony of foreign writers and by the evidence of inscriptions, needs offer no justification for its appearance.

But there are considerable difficulties in a work like this. Inscriptions are numerous, and the difficulty is enhanced by the fact that sometimes it appears impossible to reconcile literary evidence which is

mostly traditional by nature with inscriptional evidence which is mainly political, in regard to a particular item of information. Political geography of inscriptions is not infrequently at variance with traditional geography; and if the point of view is 'Traditional' such changes as occur in the boundary of a country and in the habitat of a people owing to political changes as revealed in inscriptions, should be clearly distinguished from the purely conventional import of the name. These items of political geography have been recorded, but mainly, inscriptions have been noticed only in so far as they corroborate tradition. The vast mass of epigraphic evidence regarding the topographical setting of innumerable landgrants, properly speaking, falls within the domain of the writers of dynastic and local history. All these details of a very local interest do not lie within the scope of a work which attempts to deal with the general features of ethnographic geography as whole: the present work is not intended to be a complete survey of political and local geography of every Indian district and town of ancient times. Further, the total number of different categories of names under examination is 280. Obviously, within the limits of the size of the work it has not been possible to repeat the more well-known references bearing on the authenticity and antiquity of these names which would have been otherwise necessary to make the treatment exhaustive. It is to be remembered that it is an ever-widening subject, and new light is continually being thrown on the one or the other name by all lovers of Indian antiquities. Notice has been taken only of those contributions which have been found to be very material in clarifying the geographical location of a tribe.

The following pages, therefore, within the limits due to obvious reasons, aim, so far as is possible within a general survey, at drawing attention to the peoples and races of ancient India in relation to their activities, habitats and geographical environment. The treatment has been selective as the complexities of the historical movements of the peoples of India in the past make it a supremely difficult task to treat even in outline the Ethnographic Geography of ancient India as a whole, in a book of restrained ambition. So, the northern portion of India has been selected for a careful study here in the hope that the settlements of the more famous tribes and the major geographical changes in time and place resulting from their movements may be depicted.

CHAPTER I

THE REGIONAL DIVISIONS OF

ANCIENT INDIA

In the geographical chapters contained in the Purāṇas (Bhubanakoṣa-varṇanam, Nadyādi Varṇanam, Bhārata-varṣānu-kīrtanam etc.), we have the traditional distribution of countries and peoples in several divisions then known to the compilers. The ethnographical lists furnished by the Purāṇas as going under each of the several divisions, refer to the ethnic settlements and geographical conditions of ancient times, and as such constitute the principal source of our subject.

Now, what according to the geographical texts of the Purāṇas was the scheme of the divisions of India? The Purāṇic compilers had a definite and systematic plan of dividing India into seven divisions, and to this effect they record a tradition. This seems to be the most accurate account of the divisions of India from a geographical point of view, and in spite of considerable discrepancy in details, the Purāṇas (which have chapters on geography) generally agree as to the number of the divisions into which India was supposed to have been divided, as the following table will show:

¹ Tairidam Bhāratam Varṣam saptakhandam kṛtam purā (Brahmāṇḍa-Purāṇa 34 64) The Vāyu-Purāṇa (38. 61) also repeats this statement. The Varāha-Purāna (74 7) says: Tairidam Bhāratam varsam saptadvēpam samānkitam.

			-	87	ಣ	*	'n	9	2	æ	6
			Central	North	East	South	West	82 20	N. E.	æ.W.	N. W.
Purāņas	Abbre- viated from	Chapter	Madhyadeśa	Udioya	Prācya	Dakşiņā- patha	Aparānta	Vindhys. všeiņ	Parvatā- áraņiņaņ		
Brahmaṇḍa	BD.	49. 44ff.	18 countries 49		countries 18 countries 28 countries 19 countries 20 countries 12 countries (A)	28 countries	19 countries (A)	20 countries	12 countries		
Vsyu	Vē.	45, 107ff.	18	49	18 "	. 88	19 "	20	12 "		
Matsya	Mat.	114. 34ff.	188	30	17	27	7 ,,	20 "	12 ,,		
Brahma	Br,	27. 41ff.	10	46 ,,	19 %	., 72	**	20 "	13 ",		
Vāmana	Vām.	13. 36ff.		54	20 **	28	18 ", (B)	20	13 ,,		
Markandeys	Märk.	57. 33ff.	10 "	47 (C)	19 "	27 ,,	61	20	13 ,,		22 countries (D)

Aparanta countries are divided into two parts: 10 under Aparanta and 9 under Samparita **(A)**

The Vam. designates this division as 'Patcima' and not Aparanta. It implies that the Aparanta division was the same as the Western Division or Praticya. <u>B</u>

This includes twenty-two names of the 'Uttarapaicima' Division which, however, have been found to be names of the Northern Division (See chart No. II, III and Chap. IV). 9

This list is an instance of textual corruption. On examination it appears that no such division is contemplated and that all the names it puts under 'pascimottara' in reality belong to the Northern Division. See Chap. IV. <u>e</u>

The Purapas as a rule mention seven divisions but there are exceptions; for, the Vișnu Purana (ii. 3, 14ff) hardly mentions more than five divisions and so also does the Kūrma Purāņa¹ (i. 46. 41ff). while the Garuda Purāna (55. 11ff) and the Mārkandeya (57. 35ff) speak of eight divisions.² In spite of these discrepancies, it is clear from the table that the division of India into seven parts was the general plan recognised by the Puranas. This plan of the Seven Divisions was made with a reference to the six directions and the central part. Thus Madhya-deśa means the Central Division, Udīcya, the Northern Division, Prācya, the Eastern Division, Daksināpatha, the Southern Division, and Aparanta, the Western Division. Then follows a group of tribal names called 'Vindhyācala' under which the Puranas provide more or less common lists of names. indicating that the Vindhyācala group also represented a division. In order to find out the division which it indicated, we are to compare and contrast the geographical list of the Vindhyācala group of the Puranas with all the lists furnished by the Brhat-samhitā of Varāhamihira³—a work possibly of the sixth century A.D. After a careful examination, many of the names of the Vindhyācala group of the Puranas are found to occur in the list going under the South-Eastern Division of the Brhat-samhitā. A corroborating statement viz., Vindhyāntarnilayā deśāh Pūrvadakṣinataḥ smṛtāḥ, occurs in the Garuda Purāna (55. 13). The last division has been designated as

¹ The language of the *slokas* concerning these divisions in the two Purānas is also the same. It may be conjectured that there was a stereotyped plan of dividing India into five divisions regarding which there existed a common literature.

² It will be seen (Ch. IV) that the *Mārkandeya's* list of 22 names under the head North-Western (see chart No. III) Division, does in fact refers to the list of the Northern Division (see chart No. II) and hence the *Mārkandeya* also records the tradition of the Seven Divisions of India.

³ It may be noticed in this connection that Varāhamihira divides India into Nine Divisions in the Britat-samhitā and supplies in case of each division a list of ethnic names which are of curreme importance in the sense that we can utilise them with benefit, whenever we stand in need of corroborating the Purāṇic texts and ascertaining the divisions which the Purāṇas contemplate by their somewhat incomplete and vague titles such as 'Vindhyavāsiṇ' and 'Parvatāśrayiṇ'.' The lists of the Bṛhat-samhitā are evidently correct, for they are supported and corroborated in their details and settings by other sources. The various enthnographical lists of the Bṛhat-samhitā, therefore, possess a co-ordinating and corroborating value to the Purāṇic lists. The nine lists used here are framed from Dr. H. Kern's edition of the Bṛhat-samhitā (Bibliotheca Indica, Calcutta, 1865): Bṛhat-samhitāyām Kūrma vibhāgo nāma caturdaśo 'dhyāyaḥ'/ (p. 93). Dr. Fleet's list in Ind. Ant., (xxii. 169) has also been consulted. The name Bṛhat-samhitā has been abbreviated as 'Bṛṣsam'

Parvatāśrayinah under which all the Purānas have supplied more or less a common list of tribal names. And here too, the Brhat-samhita comes to our help. 'Parvatāśrayin' stood for the North-Eastern Division, as chart No. IV will show, though obviously enough, geographical consistency was not maintained all through in the inclusion of countries and peoples going under this division. There is a plethora of irregularities in the Puranic lists and it is only by eliminating the fantastic that the proper set of names can be determined. And in case of a division like the 'North-East,' errors are likely to be more common, for the mountainous people of the whole north can easily get included without any serious detriment to geographical planning. In fact, it will be seen that (see sec. II, ch. V) the home of the peoples and tribes going under the head Parvatāśrayin of the Purāņas and under the North-Eastern Division of the Brhat-samhitā, has to be located mostly in the Northern Division of India rather than in the North-Eastern Frontier. Making allowance for all these considerations, the general feature of this account is that the Puranas contemplate a separate division by the designation Parvatāśrayin and that this division is the North-Eastern Division according to common tradition but in reality a supplement to the 'North.' Now, it may well be asked as to why the Puranic compilers used such vague titles as 'Vindhyavāsin' and 'Parvatājsrayin'. The answer is that they probably arose out of an attempt to put all the migratory tribes of the mountains of the north under a covenient nomenclature. At the same time, such a separate designation implying roughly the sense of a region or a division was necessary to fulfil the traditional conception of the seven divisions of India.

Side by side this scheme of dividing India into seven divisions, there was current another tradition of the division of India into nine parts. The very frequent references to such a plan which we come across in geographical treatises of the time, make it impossible to ignore the reliability of this tradition. Thus Varāhamihira the great astronomer whose *Brhat-sainhitā* contains some chapters very valuable for a study of Indian geography, divides India into nine parts: the central one, the eastern etc.:—

Naksatra-traya-vargair āgneyādyair vyavasthitair navadhā/bhāratavarse madhyāt prāgādi Vībhijiṭā deśāh¹//.

nine description of India into parts Alberuni's "Astronomers auoted: and (Navabheda) be may directions according to the lunar the Astrologers divide

¹ Bṛhat-sañhitā of Varāhamihira, ed. by Dr. H. Kern, Bibliotheca Indica, 1865. p. 87.

Agreeably enough, the Purāṇas in spite of their enumeration of the seven divisions of India, do not fail to recognise the tradition of the 'Navabheda' of India While describing Bhāratavarsa, every Purāṇa records that Bhāratavarsa is divided into nine parts or bheda, which is supplemented by a scheme of dividing India into nine dvīpas, such as Indra, Kaśeru etc 3 (The Viṣṇu Purāṇa, again, treats a tradition which describes India as being like a lotus flower the central part of which represents Madhyadeśa, the eight surrounding petals being the other divisions 1 The third Purāṇic form of dividing India into nine parts is found in the 'Kūrma-Niveśa' section of the Mārkandeya-Purāṇa (Ch 58) There India is likened to a tortoise, lying with its face to the east. The nine divisions refer to the nine different parts of its body. 5)

This analogy to the body of a tortoise is probably due to the "round borders, the elevated surface and the globular convexity on its surface".⁶ A list of ethnic names⁷ is also furnished along with each

¹ AI, I 296-7

² Siddhānta-Siromani, Ch in 41 tr L Wilkinson, Bib Ind., Calcutta, 1861, p 120.

³ For a detailed treatment see S B Chaudhuri—'The Nine dvipas of Bharatavarsa'—in IA. Lix 1930 204-208, 224-226, Dr H C Roy Choudhury in JDL, XIX, 15-20—'India in Puranic cosmography'

⁴ Wilson, Visnu Purana, II, p 9

⁵ Prānmukho bhagavān Devaḥ Kūrmarupīvyebasthstaḥ Ākramya Bhāratam-Varsam Navabhedamsdam dvījah (Mikk, 58.4). The Skanda Purāna (vn. 11119) also repeats the same sloka

⁶ It should be noted that this is a total misconception of the configuration of India to compare it with the shape of a tortoise "lying outspread and facing eastward". Cf also the Kūrma Vibhāge section of the Brhat-samhuta. That India was like a lotus flower also betrays the some sense of maccuracy.

⁷ The various lasts of the *Märkandeya Puräna* found in Ch 57 are lasts of country names while the lists supplied with reference to the 'Kürma Niveśa' plan (ch. 58) are ethnographical lasts.

of the divisions.¹ The following diagram representing the divisions of Bhāratavarṣa into nine parts with reference to the tortoise-figure may be exhibited to make the plan readily intelligible.

NE.	East	SE.
AIŠĀNA	PŪRVA	ĀGNEYA
Kurma-	Kûrma-	Kürma-
Pûrva-	mukha	pūrva-daksiņa-
Uttarapāda		pāda
UDICYA	MADHYA	DA K ŞINA
Kūrma-	Kūrma-	Kūrma-
bāmakuk <u>ş</u> ī	madhya	daksiņakuk s ī
VĀYAVA	APARÂNTA	NAIRITA
Kūrma-	Kürma-	Kūrmapara-
bāmapāda	puccha	dakşinapāda

The Mārkandeya Purāna, as already noticed, divides India into seven divisions on the basis of directions supplying lists of countries, belonging to each of the divisions² and consequently it follows two plans for describing the divisions of India. The following table makes it clear:—

¹ This scheme of dividing India with reference to the 'Kūrma Niveśa' plan will be indicated henceforth with the abbreviated form-Mārk (k).

² The divisions enumerated by the *Mārkandeya* on the basis of the directions are eight in number. But on examination it has been found that the tribes it puts under the NW. Division practically belongs to the Northern Division. In other words, it is only by shortening the list of the names of the Northern Division that a list of the NW. Division has been formulated though the latter is admittedly a portion of the former.

	,	NW.	Paécimott- arap	ars. Kūrnasbi da mepida	ii- Paiemoté- aranyim
	•	₩	M	Kūrma-spara- dakṣiṇapāda 25	Nairty kndi- éideésh 29
	7	NB.	Parvatäér- ayts ? 13	Kürmapür- vottarapä- da 33	A iéā Dyāri 36
	80	SE.	Vindhya- vāqin 20	Kürmapür- vadakşina- pāda 26	Āgueyyām d- iếi 28
	LQ.	West	Aparenta 19	Kūrmap- uocha	Aparasyāni 19
	*	South	Dekşina- pathe 27	Kūrmeda. kṣiṇakukṣī	Daksinena 64
111	•••	Esst.	Prácya 19	Kūrmamu- kha	Pürvasysin Daksinena
	es	North	Udioys.	Kürmehe- makukçi	**************************************
	1	Central	Madhya- desa 10	Kürme- medbys 30	Madbys- defa 33
	*	Porsig	Mārk; 57. 3 2 ff. (Soven)	Märk; 58. 6ff. (Nine) Märk (K).	Brhat. sembitā; Bræm. 14 2ff. (Nine)

It is quite evident that the Nine Divisions of the Mārkandeya made according to the 'Kūrma Niveśa plan', refer to the same nine divisions as are sketched under a different form by Varāhamihira. In comparing each of the lists of the Nine Divisions of Mārkandeya (k), with the corresponding lists of the Brhat-samhitā, it becomes manifestly clear that although there are repetitions and displacements of names, as well as many various misreadings, the Brhat-samhitā and the Mārk (k), make out a common text. But the lists of names of the seven divisions furnished with a reference to the directions by the other Purāṇas also agree fairly well with the corresponding lists of countries which the Mārkandeya tabulates under the same plan (ch. 57).

These are the different ideas regarding the Regional Divisions of ancient India. The plan of dividing India into several regions had been a matter of gradual growth, the nucleus of which was to be traced in the Vedas, while the final stage was reached in the Puranas and other astronomical works. This plan of the geographical divisions of India based on directions is, however, as early as the time of the Atharva Veda (xix. 17. 1-9) where it is vaguely referred to. The Aitareya Brāhmana (viii. 14) shows greater acquaintance with this scheme of dividing India into five divisions, which was current in popular use and supplied for many centuries a comprehensive and workable structure of the geographical divisions of India, so much so, that it was adopted partially by the Buddhist writers and fully by authors like Rājaśekhara, and foreign travellers like Hiuen Tsang. Into the territorial area of the different regions, other small and minor, ancient and sacred territorial units coalesced and as such ceased to be termed as separate units. Thus Brahmavarta and Brahmarsideśa lost their identity in the Madhya-desa, and this combined with Prācya, Pratīcya and Udīcya (Uttarāpatha) became the equivalent of Aryavarta. Meanwhile, a still greater advance in the geographical knowledge of India and a more thorough acquaintance with the vast magnitude of the country led to a full and comprehensive idea of dividing India into seven parts, which has been outlined in the Puranas with a reference to the different directions. The divisions of India contemplated under this scheme, combined with the advanced astronomical knowledge of the time, probably resulted in the more elaborate idea of the Nine Divisions of India. This tradition about the regional divisions has been propounded in different forms, only

¹For a full treatment of the subject see S. B. Chaudhuri—'Regional Divisions of Ancient India'—in ABORI, XXIX, pp. 123-146.

² See S. B. Chaudhuri-'Aryavarta'-in IHQ. XXV. 1949, June, pp. 110-122.

two of which have been illustrated with names of peoples and countries belonging to each of the nine divisions: These Nine Divisions are variously represented by:—

- 1. The Nine lunar stations (Astronomical works)
- 2. The Eight petals and the central part of the lotus flower (Visnu Purāṇa)
- 3. The Nine different parts of the tortoise's body (Mārkandeya-Purāna)
- 4. The Nine Dvīpas (Purānas).

This shows that four plans were current to interpret the scheme of Nine Divisions of India. Needless to say that the divisions were of a geographical character being based on the points of the compass. The idea of dividing India into nine parts was presumably widely current in popular use, as is hinted by the many plans devised to one and the same end of describing the Nine Divisions of India.¹

¹ The idea was also familiar to the early Arab geographers. Rashidu-d-din for instance, who probably derived his knowledge from a book called 'Batankal' to which he refers, says that the land of Hind is divided into nine parts. (Elliot and Dowson, History of India, I p. 44). But 'Nine', may be, after all, merely a traditional number in the ancient world: "Nine Provinces was an ancient synonym for China proper as much as "Nau-khanda" with like meaning, was an ancient name of India". (Ibid. 199, fn. 10). For Continental notices on the divisions of India see S. B. Chaudhuri in Journal of Indian-History, Vol. XXVII, Pt. III. No. 81, p. 287ff.

CHAPTER II

GEOGRAPHICAL DATA EXAMINED

The lists of ancient peoples and countries and of hills, rivers and mountains as contained in the Puranas, form the chief data of a geographical kind, and the investigation of physical and ethnographic geography must begin with them. They are treated in a divisional setting more or less in all the Puranas except in the late Varaha, Skanda, Linga, Nāradiya, Brahmāvaivarta, Agni, Bhāgavata and Bhavisya which scarcely contain chapters exclusively on Indian geography, and even if they possess any, they are not very useful. The Padma Purana furnishes a detailed list of countries and rivers of India, but the list is so confused and the divisional setting of countries has been so grossly mistaken that no useful purpose is likely to be served by an examination of the list. The Ramayana (Kişk, ch. 40) and the Mahābhārata (Bhis, ch. 9) also possess similar lists of countries and rivers. The list of the former is not an exhaustive one and the treatment does not follow strictly traditional lines, although enumeration of the countries on a regional basis seems to have been attempted. The Mahābhārata list is professedly geographical and exhaustive, but it shows no acquaintance with the respective divisions of India to which the countries belonged¹. There is another list of countries in the Mahābhārata (sabhā, ch. 22 ff.) which, although not a chapter on geography, possesses great value as the countries are described there on a divisional basis. Besides these, full texts bearing on Indian geography are also be to found in Bharata's Nātyašāstra² and Rājašekhara's Kāvyamāmāmsā both of which have been tabulated in the charts prepared for the present work. But the geographical details of Kāvyamīmāmsā and Nātyaśāstra are in many points quite different from those of the Puranas, inasmuch as, the latter deal with a greater number of India's divisions and countries.

As pointed out before, the *Bṛhat-saṃhitā* of Varāhamihira contains valuable geographical data. The full list of Parāśara as quoted by Utpala, the commentator of *Bṛhat-saṃhitā*, has also been

¹ Dr. W. Kirfel has tabulated the list of the Mahābhārata and the Padmai Purāņa in his DKDI, pp. 77-79: Die Völkerliste des Padma-Purāņa und Mahābhārata.

² Grosset's edn. ch. XIV; MM. H. P. Sastri in JASB. 1909, p. 360.

tabulated here¹. With regard to Paraśara's work, Kern observes: "Interesting for the geography of India is an entire chapter which Varahamihira, only changing the form but leaving the matter almost intact, has given in the fourteenth chapter of the Brhat-samhita; therefore we have to consider that chapter as really representing the geography of Paraśara-tantra or perhaps yet more ancient works"². According to Cunningham Paraśara flourished not later than the first century after Christ³. Other internal indications contained in Paraśara's work similarly point to the early century of the Christian era as the time when he lived to which age Kern assigns Garga, another ancient astronomer, perhaps of the school of Paraśara⁴. Generally, of course, the texts of Paraśara and Varahamihira agree, but on closer examination it can be safely concluded that the most important and almost the sheet-anchor of Indian geography is the text of the Brhat-samhitā of Varāhamihira.

It may be said that the texts of Varāhamihira and Parāśara taken together are decidedly the best. Their accounts agree fairly well and they have a great part of their versions in common. But the differences in their texts are also many. In almost all these geographical lists coming under the several divisions of India as furnished by Parāśara, there is to be found (except in the list of the central and S. E. divisions) a group of a few names which hardly finds any corroboration in the corresponding list of the Brhatsamhitā, far from being in agreement with those of the Puranas. If it is a fact, as Kern observes, that the text of the Brhat-samhita was borrowed from Parāśara, no reason can be adduced as to why Varāhamihira did not take the entire version of Parāśara in the same order (vide charts), verbatim. When compared with other texts it is evident that the text of the Brhat-samhita has not been distorted and tampered with; the order of narration appears to be strictly traditional and insertion of new names very few. The text of Parasara presents contrary features; the additional lists of names supplied by Parāśara are evidently late insertions which could not have been incorporated till after a very late age. The lists of Parāśara suffer from other defects also. Sometimes it omits various well known place names whose positions are attested by the Brsam, and the other lists of its group. The text is also defective in the reading of

¹ The list of Paräsara is taken from the *Bṛhat-saṃhitā* of the Vizianagam Sanskrit Series, (No. 12), edited with the commentary of Bhattotpala, by MM. Sudhārkara Dvivedi, Vol. X, pt. I, printed and published by E. J. Lazarus & Co., Benares, 1895, pp. 286-294.

² Introduction to Brhat-samhitā, p. 32.

⁸ CAGI. p. 167.

⁴ Kern, Brhat-samhita, p. 39-40 (Intro.).

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names e.g., in one list (Central division, chart No. 1) it reads Umāranya instead of Dharmāranya and Lepamāndavyas instead of Māndavyas, and Uttamajyotişas instead of Upa-Jyotişas. All these suggest that Varāhamihira has not copied verbatim from Parāšara: geographical tradition, as embodied in the Brhat-samhitā, perhaps flowed even independently of Parāšara-tantra, and was better known than such traditions known to the astronomer and quoted by Utpala, and so invariably the more trustworthy.

The version of the Markandeya Purana has got significant peculiarities. It may be considered in three aspects: (i) it has two lists for each of the eight divisions; (ii) its list of ethnic names referring to the different parts of the tortoise's body; (iii) its account of countries formulated with reference to the different directions. Regarding the first part, it may be said that the two accounts are two distinct versions belonging to two different sets of traditions, and seem to have been based on two independent original texts and not on the same text. The occasional coincidence of names in the two lists belonging to the same division is rather a matter of chance than anything else; on the whole, this impression is left after a careful study that the Markandeya has scrupulously preserved two distinct streams of traditions bearing on Indian geography maintaining as far as possible the distinguishing characteristics of both sets. Regarding the second aspect (for which the abbreviation Mark (k). will be used), it may be safely said that the account closely resembles the Brhat-samhitā version in all its details and appears either to have been copied from the text of the Brhat-samhita or based on one common original text. In spite of variations, additions, omissions and condensations of names in this account of the Mark (k)., it is clear that the lists of Brsam, and Mark (k), are substantially the same (see chart No. 1)¹, which justifies the inclusion of the versions of Mark (k). into the Brhat-samhita group. Regarding the third aspect, it is found that the text occurs strictly in the same setting as in the Brahma Purama. A glance at the two texts as tabulated in the different charts will make it clear that the Br. agrees very closely with the Mark., the same order being observed (see charts of Eastern and Northern divisions) and the same mistakes being committed (see chart of the Central division). Mārkandeva is undoubtedly an earlier compilation than the Brahma

¹ Pargiter in his translation of the Märkandeya Purāna has not scrutinised the geographical lists in this line. So Dr. W. Kirlel remarks: "Das Märkandeya-p. scheint die Liste der Byhat-samhita entnommen zu haben. Dem übersetzer desselben, F. Eden Pargiter, ist diese Parallele Vollständig entgangen". DKDI, p. 81.

Purana, it can be presumed that the Br. framed its lists from the lists of Mark, as based on different directions.

But what is the source of this list of the Mark? In fact, it strikes us that the Mark, and Va. texts agree closely. Although the Vaya furnishes some new names in the Central and Sourthern Divisions foreign to the Mark., in other divisions (see charts) the method and order of narration and even the reading of names of the two texts are perfectly in agreement. In spite of differences in minor details, the inference is irresistible that the seven lists of the Markandeya formulated with a reference to the different directions were borrowed from the Vayu text. This is quite clear when we see that the Markandeya has not supplied any list in the SW. Division, just in agreement with the Vāyu text which also has no list for the division in question; whereas the Mark (k). provides a list going under that division in accordance with the Brsam, text—a fact which all the more clearly brings out the distinctiveness of the two different sets of geographical traditions which the Markandeya Purana has preserved. But as there are some new features in the Markandeya, its version may be regarded as a revised version of the Vāyu.

So here we can discern that the account of the Mark (k). bears a close resemblance to the text of the astronomical works, and the account of the Mark, to the text of the Va. The two texts are thus two different versions and there is a consistency of treatment between the two texts in that the account of the Mark (k). does not show any very great acquaintance with the Puranic texts in general, in the same way as the account of the Markandeya differs from the text of the Brhat-samhitā and bears no resemblance to it. But whereas the account of the Mark (k). is not free from errors of omissions, insertions, and variations when compared with the Brhatsamhitā text, the account of the Markandeya follows the Puranic versions more or less strictly and usually inserts no single name which cannot be corroborated. This makes the account of Markandeva more trustworthy, but on the whole both the accounts of the Markandeya are a valuable and in many points an independent text.

Of all the Puranas the best and oldest text of geographical tradition of India is contained in the Vāyu and Brahmānda. Although they do not spin out long lists, the seven lists of ethnic names which each of them supplies in regard to the seven divisions, are probably the most genuine records we have. Further, the two texts are substantially the same, which indicates that the two Puranas were originally one and the same, as is generally upheld. In view of this

¹ See S. B. Chaudhuri-Siva and Vayu Puranas'-in JBORS. XV 185ff.

close similarity, the Vayu version has been tabulated here which thus stands for the Bd. as well. The differences between the two texts are few and far between, and in case of such differences the Vayu version is preferable, for the Brahmanda has sometimes corruptions in its text. The Vayu, for instance, reads Nasikas while the Bd. alone reads Maindikas and further it reads Saulikas instead of Paurikas in the list of the Southern Division. But the two texts combined may be regarded as the oldest that we possess now, and the most valuable too in all matters of traditional geography.

The text of the Matsya Purāna possesses no independent value and is plainly a repetition of the text of the Vāyu. The Matsya text has no omissions, variations and embellishments of its own but is only a reproduction of the Vāyu text, as will be clear from the charts (see charts of Central, Southern and Eastern divisions). The list of the western tribes and peoples as given in the Matsya Purāna is slightly irregular, because the Matsya has omitted the first twelve names of the Vāyu and so the thirteenth name in the list of the latter gets the first place in the list of the Matsya Purāna. The lists going under the Northern Division furnish no good evidence as all the Purāna have taken considerable liberty with names in that division. The accounts of the Matsya Purāna are manifestly of a later date than the Vāyu which raises the presumption that the former has been copied from the latter.

It thus follows that the geographical texts of the Va., Bd., Mark., Mat., and Br. are in agreement with one another subject to some small variations, and that the common source of Matsya and Markandeya is the text of the Vayu and Brahmanda from which the other Purānas framed their lists. While the Matsya copied from the Vayu text freely, the Markandeya subjected it to a critical revision, and so the Markandeya list based on several directions is valuable as a means of checking the Vayu text (see charts of the Central and Eastern divisions). The Markandeya on the other hand was copied by the Brahma in the same way as the Vayu has been copied by the Matsya, and consequently, the text of the Vayu remains the common original source. It is evident, therefore, that we possess two different accounts of ancient Indian geography, the earliest being that of the Vayu text, which has been filtered through the Puranas. The later account is that which is contained in the Brhat-samhitā and Parāsara and adopted by the Mark (k). We may conveniently designate these two distinct streams of tradition as represented by the Vayu and the Brhat-samhita texts, as text of the Va group, and the text of the Brsam. group respectively. Not that the two texts are sharply distinguished from each other: in fact, there are agreements on many points and the safest course would be to find out these names which are common to both the texts, with a view to ascertaining, as far as possible, the original version they indicate. So it will be necessary to collate the divisional lists of the texts of the two groups.

The text of the Kāvyamāmāmsā professes to be purely geographical. It supplies a list for each of the four divisions but the version it records differs from other accounts. Some names of the Kāvyamāmāmsā text no doubt appear in the corresponding list of Purānas but the manner of treatment is totally different, and excepting a few names in the lists of the Eastern and Northern Divisions, a good portion of the account does not appear to be thoroughly in position. Similarly the Nātyaśāstra of Bharata furnishes four lists of country names, but unlike Kāvyamāmāmsā, it has a greater number of country names in common with the Purānic text. But the text of Nātyaśāstra does not particularly belong to any group—neither to the Brhat-sapihitā nor to the Vāyu—and its points of agreement with Kāvyadāmāmsā are fewer.

Geographical texts also occur in the works of the lexicographers of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The Vaijayanti of Yadavaprakāśa a native of Conjeeveram who is regarded to have flourished in the second-half of the eleventh century A.D., the Abhidanacintamani (c.A.D. 1150) of Hemacandra (Guzerat), and the Trikandaśesa (c.A.D. 1159) of Purusottamadeva (Orissa), are the more important books on Sanskrit vocabulary which contain valuable information on the ancient geography of India. But as the treatment of geography in those texts is mainly confined, for the purpose of a vocabulary, to giving synonyms of geographical names, these data of the vocabularies are not tabulated in the charts prepared for this work. Full notice, however, has been taken in relevant connections, of the geographical information supplied by these authors. Of the three works, Hemacandra's Abhidhana-cintamani is very useful and reliable, as the details he records are mostly in accord with what is known from other sources. The contributions of Purusottamadeva on the subject are brief and condensed and they generally agree with those of Hemacandra. His geographical notions are not always clear as he makes a confusion between Madhya-deśa and Pürva-deśa1.

The work of Yadavaprakaśa² has many peculiarities as in many points he gives altogether new synonyms unknown either to Hema-

¹ TKS, p. 81.

² For a recent work on the 'Vaijayanti of Yādavaprakāća', See Dr. D. C. Ganguly in IHQ. XIX. 214-24.

candra or Purusottamadeva. Thus for instance, he equates Bhaurika with Samatața¹, Gandhāra with Dihaṇda², Sambhāla with Sūrasena³. Some of his geographical synonyms are so strange that they require to be investigated into carefully as in Avantī (=Takṣaśilā).⁴ Some of his entries again show lack of accurate regional sense, as in the inclusion of Mekala and Kośala in the Aparāmta or Pāścātyadeśa⁵, Sālva in the Prācya-deśa⁶ and Śūrasena in Udīcya⁷. There are also other statements not free from doubt, which make Vaijayantī not more reliable than the Abhidhānacintāmani.

All these are the relevant texts of ancient Indian ethnography and geography. The various lists when examined and collated will bring out in clear relief the corruptions of each. The variations in the Puranic texts, it should be pointed out, are often superficial and may be due to faults in the Mss. themselves, or on the part of the copyists, and not unoften in the structure of the lists. As for the defects in the structure of lists there are many types; for example, a name may be left out by a mere omission probably accidental. Thus the Brahma omits the Cholas from the Southern Division and Nisadas from the South-Eastern Division, although almost every account asserts their inclusion in the respective divisions. Names not very familiar have been dropped in some cases. There are also instances of pure blunder. Thirdly, names have been displaced and the order has been revised. It is also to be noted that variations have been in a good number of cases due to the actual settlements of the same people in different places.

This is a very prominent feature of the texts and requires careful examination. Apparently, the lists are very unsatisfactory owing to the repetition of the same name in different regions and with different tribes preceding and following—an arrangement that can only be explained by the supposition that settlements of some particular tribes lay scattered over various parts of India. These lists of names may, therefore, be found useful if we may be able to draw some definite conclusions from an examination of them which would throw light on many points regarding the geographical basis of ethnic settlements. In every list, the names are supposed to be given in a geographical order, and so whatever may be the nature of corruptions, if they are detected and the original order restored, it may

¹ VJN, p. 87, v. 81.

² Ibid. v. 24.

⁸ Ibid.

⁴ VJN, p. 159, v. 9.

⁵ Ibid. p. 38, v. 37.

⁶ Ibid. p. 37, v. 32.

⁷ Ibid. v. 24.

afford some little aid to identification. When we find groups of countries or tribes always enumerated together, and sometimes the locality of one or more indicated, we may reasonably assume the position of the remainder.

The other point is that, as the lists are mostly drawn from the geographical chapters of the Puranas, we have in them a traditional account of a wide variety of human groups and sub-groups living in the different regions of India. Some of the names in the lists are fragments of a far distant age and take us back to the period of the Yet there are positive indications to show that these lists which are arranged in a definite order, and are stereotyped in character, were altered to receive late additions, and were brought up to date from time to time by the inclusion of the geography of an ever increasing number of tribes and counrties of different ages. This was obviously done to make the geographic system comprehensive in conformity with the current historical conditions, which could scarcely have been made from the meagre geographical information of the Vedic age. Thus the mention of the Yavanas, Sakas, and Pahlavas whose connection with India is assigned to the second and first centuries B. C., and the inclusion of the Huns (5th century A.D.) as well as of the Turuşkas (Muḥammadans), show the wide range of the strata of information collected. This process resulted in making the Puranic accounts so many repositories of geographical information which thus afford a valuable picture of the geography of ancient India.

In the next chapters the task of collating the lists will be taken up and attempts will be made to ascertain, as far as possible, the original position of counrties and peoples as indicated by this scrutiny. By this method individual corruptions and errors will be corrected and a new list framed for each of the divisions of India. Ethnic settlements, with the original form of their names restored and their regional position ascertained and corroborated by the one or the other text, will only be admitted in the corrected lists. Those names which do not find support and corroboration regarding their position even from a single list, will then be left out as erroneous and unworthy of notice.

CHAPTER III

THE CENTRAL DIVISION

(See chart No. 1)

The lists of this division are furnished by as many as eleven texts, but some of the texts are incomplete: the accounts of the Garuda, Kūrma and Visnu are extremely meagre and are hardly of any use. The list of the Natya-śastra, is also defective in many points. The text of the Brhat-samhita group, comprising the lists of Brsam., Parāśara, and Mārk (k). seems to be correct and complete; all the accounts are fairly in common agreement with one other. But it appears from the chart that in the Brsam, group, the list of Mark (k), alone in spite of some shortcomings possesses the clue to check the versions of Parasara and Varahamihira. the entries under Nos. 7, 8, 9, 10 of the list of the Brhatsamhitā which are omitted by Parāśara, are corroborated in their position by the Mark (k), although it reads the names differently. The text of the Va. group in which are included the lists of Va., Mat., Mark., Br., and Vam. is quite good and though there are great differences in the reading of names, the accounts, subject to some slight variations, perfectly agree. And as pointed out before, it is again clear from the chart (No. 1) that the Mat. has borrowed from the Va. and that the Br. has copied from the Mark., while the Vāmana has conformed to the general order in its own way. But the Mark., unlike the Mat., has made a critical revision of the Va. list without borrowing from it, and as such possesses the clue to check the Va. list. The number of ethnic names supplied by the various lists is given below.

Br. Vām. Gad. Brsam. Parāśara. Mārk (k) Vã. Mat. Mārk. 18 18 10 10 11 83 32 30

Here it is possible to observe the distinctive features of the two sets of traditions as represented by the Brsam. group and the Vā. group. There is a great difference in the number of names between the two groups; the Vā group, as is shown in the chart, records altogether a different set of names although some of them are mentioned by the text of the Brsam. group. The number is, however, greatest in the list of the Brhat-samhitā which can now be examined. It will be found that the entire list of the Brhat-samhitā is supported either by the one or the other list of its group,

and hence all the names recorded by the Brsam, belong to the Madhya-deśa. The lists of Parāśara and Mārk (k). are also completely corroborated, in their setting, so much so, that there is hardly any new name in the two lists with the exception of Nos. 17 and 30 in the Parasara list and Nos. 5, 9 and 19 in the Mark (k). list. These names are manifestly insertions, as they are not mentioned in any single text (excepting the Sakas who are mentioned by the Vāmana), and hence it will be erroneous to place them here. As regards the different lists of the Va. group, all of them have observed the same order and enumerated practically the same set. The list of the Mark, is short and abridged and on examination it stands that Nos. 7, 8, and 10 of the Va. and Mat. which Mark., or for the matter of that, Br. and Vam., omit are undoubtedly insertions of the Va. and consequently of the Mat. Excepting Mat. (Gad's account is distorted beyond measure) all other accounts of the Va. group corroborate Mark. and contradict Va. So these three names in question are not shown in the list of Madhya-deśa peoples. It should be noted that the Mark. has also omitted to mention those names of the list of the Va. and Mat. which are found in the accounts of the Brsam, group (see chart) and consequently has furnished a short list of only ten names which probably indicate the nature of the original text of the Va. group. However, there being no other discrepancy in the lists of the Va. group, the whole list of the Va. can be included in this division. The Yaudheyas of Garuda and other such names of the Nātya-śāstra list which remain uncorroborated are not included in this division.

Thus, on an investigation made on the lines shown above the following ethnic names and countries may be exhibited in the Central Division. Mistakes and textual corruptions are easily detected by tabulation and collation, and the original reading of names has been attempted to be restored. It is, however, very necessary to determine the original order and also the textual position of the different names, as that would be of great value in determining their identity. So according to the text of the Brsam. group, the following peoples and countries belonged to the Central Division:—

(1) Bhadras or Bhadrākaras,1 (2) Arimedas2, (3) Māṇḍavyas,3

¹ Evidences are equally balanced in favour of both the readings. It may be pointed out that the final 'Ka' in the form of the name is a common Sanskrit suffix to ethnic names given or dropped at random.

² Alberuni's reading Ari and Meda as two names, is a mistake (AI, I. 300).

³ Both Parāśara and Mārk (k). differ in reading the first part of this name and so the middle part of the name is accepted. 'Lepa' and 'Vi' are qualitative or adjectival prefixes.

- (4) Sālvas,1 (5) Nīpas, (6) Ujjihānas, (7) Sankhyātas,2 (8) Marus,8
- (9) Vatsas, 4 (10) Ghoṣas, 5 (11) Yāmunas, (12) Sārasvatas, (13) Matsyas, (14) Mādhyamikas, (15) Māthurakas, (16) Jyotiṣas, 6 (17)
- ¹ This and the following two names are read by Alberuni as Sālvanī, and Pojjihāna (op. cit.). This may show how corruptions have passed undetected.
- In the chart Sanketas of Mārk (k) list (No. 21), is shown against the Sankhyātas of the Brsam list (No. 7), for the former seems to be an abridged form of the latter. But Kirfel following Pargiter puts Sanketa of the Mārk (k) list (No. 21) against Sāketa of Brsam list (No. 25) and shows that sankhya of the Mārk (k) list (No. 8), is the equivalent of Sankhyāta, No. 7 of the Brsam. list (DKDI, p. 81-2). As for the equatation Sanketa of Mārk (k) and Sāketa of Brsam, as suggested by Dr. Kirfel; the latter is a very well known name distinctly mentioned in the Brsam and Parāśara lists. In this case it is very unlikely that the Mārkandeya should forget the name Sāketa and distort it as Sanketa. So it is not improbable that the Sanketas of Mārk (k) (No. 21) stand for the Sankhyātas of the Brsam. (No. 7), as shown in the chart. Kirfel, however, equates Samkhyāta of the Brsam. (No. 7) with Samkhya of Mārk (k) going under No. 8 in his list. But in our chart we have taken 'Sankhya' of the Mārk (k) list to be a suffix of the word Ghoşa (No. 8, see chart), but in reality standing for another name (see fn. 5).
- ⁸ Pargiter's suggestion that the reading should be Mālavas (MP, p. 354) appears untenable in the light of the text of the Brsam. The reading is also acceptable as Marus, i.e. people of the desert.
- ⁴ Kirfel following Pargiter drops the name Vatsas from the Mārk (k) list, and so the next name Ghoṣa-Sānkhya in our list of Mārk (k), going under No. 8 (see chart) is put under No 7 in Kirfel's list (DKDI, p. 81). Kirfel however shows that the Khasas of Mārk (k) going under No. 9, refer to the Vatsas of the Brsam, which is untenable.
- 5 In the absence of any other evidence in favour of the Mārk (k)'s reading of the name we are obliged to take the reading of the Brsam. Pargiter's suggestion that (MP, 351) the name is an adjective to the Khasas appears to be incorrect. The word 'Sānkhyas' which is tacked on to the word Ghoṣa (No. 8) in the Mārk (k) list is evidently the distorted form of one other name of the Brsam. list which it has omitted. The Sankhyātas (No. 7) of the Brsam, list are referred to by the Mārk (k) as Sanketas (No. 21) and so the word Sankhyas which is tacked on to the word Ghoṣa like a suffix may perhaps stand for another name possibly the Mādhyamikas (No. 14) of the Brsam, list which is a significant omission in the Mārk (k) list. This is an instance to show how names are not only distorted beyond recognition, but are also torn off from their original context.
- ⁶ The words 'Upa' and 'Uttama' found in the Brsam, and Parasara lists respectively are evidently qualitative or adjectival prefixes of the name Jyotisas which is a professional name denoting astrologers. The use of this name in this list suggests that the professional name was later on turned into the name of a tribe or a clan whose profession was mainly astrology.

Dharmāraṇya,¹ (18) Šūrasenas, (19) Gauragrīvas,² (20) Uddehikas, (21) Pāṇdus, (22) Guḍas,³ (23) Aśmakas,⁴ (24) Pañcālas,⁵ (25) Sāketas, (26) Kaṅkas, (27) Kurus, (28) Kālakoṭis, (29) Kukuras,⁶ (30) Pāriyātranāga, (31) Audumbaras, (32) Kāpiṣṭhalas,⁷ (33) Gajāhvayas.⁸

- ¹ The reading of Brsam, is supported by the Mark (k), and so it is accepted. But the reading Umaranya of Parasara may give a clue to the location of Dharmaranya. Alberuni also reads Dharmaranya (op. cit.).
- ² Pargiter (Ibid. 352) has taken the name to imply an adjective qualifying the Asmakas. But this appears to be manifestly erroneous when compared with other lists as is shown in the chart.
- It is held that Guda is again only the second half of the name of a people the full designation of which is Pāṇḍuguḍa (ABORI. VII. 152). But it is not an error to divide the name as Alberuni (op. cit.) distinctly refers to Guda, while the Pāṇḍus are a historic name of Central India. Further, the combination Pāṇḍuguḍa does not carry any meaning.
- ⁴ The reading is accepted on the authority of the Mark (k). This is also the well-known form of the name. Albertoni's Asyntha (op. cit.) is a mistake.
- ⁵ Parāśara's reading Uttara and Daksiņa-Pañcāla does not affect the feading; it rather enlightens us regarding the existence of a branch of the people.
- 6 Utpala adds 'sāca' after the name whereas Parāsara calls it Kukurarājya. We have shown Pāsaṇḍas of Mārk (k). and Varbaras of Vām., in the same order and position with the Kukuras in the chart. Probably these are some abusive epithets of the Kukuras. But as Kukura is a well-known name it is retained in preference to the others. Alberuni also reads the name (op. c:t.) Kukura.
- 7 The reading of the Brsam. is taken, but it cannot be ignored that the Mark (k)., reads Kapingalas and other lists of the Va. group have the reading Jangalas which possibly refer to the original and old form of the name from which the word Kapingala is derived and is plainly a corruption of it. But the mention of the word Kapingala in the Mark (k). list in the same order and position so as to correspond to Kāpiṣṭhala (No. 32) of the Brsam. list perhaps constitutes a valuable link. Does it indicate that the Jangala country and Kapisthala were identical? In fact a Jangala country was very well-known in the Epic period. The word meant a forest or a waste tract and such tracts probably formed a portion of the Madra, Kuru and Paficala (Mbh (B)., VI. 9. 42; V. 19. 29) countries, as such names as Kuru-Jāngala, Madreya-jāngala and Pancāla-jāngala would indicate (DHNI, II, p. 1053). This would show that the country of the Jangalas was somewhere in the vicinity of the Kuru-Pancala country. A Jaina book of considerable antiquity refers to Jängala and its city Ahicchatra (infra p. 80, fn. 2). But in the mediaeval period the name Jāngludeśa (Jāngala-deśa) seems to have been given to a portion of Rajputana which had for its capital Ahicchatrapura identified with Nagapura i.e., modern Nagaur in the Jodhpur State. In the Vaijayanti, Jämgala is mentioned as a country of Madhya-deśa (VJN, p, 38, v. 40).
- ⁸ Pargiter gives good reason to believe that the people are the same as Hastināpuras. Parāśara writes both Pāṇḍunagara and Gajāhavyas evidently meaning the Hastināpuras.

According to the text of the Va. group the following countries and peoples belonged to the Central Division¹:—

(34) Kulyas, (35) Kuntalas² (36) Kāśis, (37) Kośalas, (38) Avantas,⁸ (39) Kalingas,⁴ (40) Mūlakas,⁵ (41) Vrkas⁶.

1) BHADRAS or BHADRAKARAS

It is difficult to believe that the Bhadras and the Bhadrakaras are not one and the same people. The Mahābhārata⁷ and the

- 1 It should be noted that this list excludes those names of the Vā. text which occur in the list of the Bram. group.
- ² Dr. D. C. Sircar's contention that the name is Kunti (IHQ. XXI. 301, fn. 7) is not based on adequate evidence. The testimony of the Garuda need not be taken seriously. The Bhīṣma-parva list has both the readings namely Kunti and Kuntala while all the important Purāṇas read Kuntala.
- All the texts of the Vā. group differ widely in reading this name. The Arthapas (No. 15) of the Vā. list and the Atharvas (No.7), evidently a variant, of the Mārk. list are not a known people, their existence may be doubted. In the same order and position, the *Matsya* reads the name as Āvantas i.e. the people of Avanti, a country which was a Madhya-deśa janapada and was known to ancient Indian tradition as such. It is proper that while restoring the original form of names we should select historical and inscriptional names. The other readings Andhrakas and Angas form an unaccountable insertion and must, therefore, be removed from this division. See TAI, p. S83, for Dr. B. C. Law's observations.
- ⁴ The people mean't here are undoubtedly the Kalingas, but the prefix 'Arka' found in the reading of the Mārk (No. 8) which means sun, may stand for those of the Kalingas who worshipped the sun, just as the word Konāraka suggests that it was the Konar temple of the sun. The reading of the Vā. is Tilingas (No. 16) which is either a variant of Telinga or a shorter form of Trikalinga, but the texts of the Vā. group in general refer to the Kalingas in this order and context and so they have to be placed in the list although the Kalingas judged by their geographical position, i.e in a regional sense were not a Madhya-deśa people of ancient times. See TAI, p. 383. Dr. D. C. Sircar's reading Bhulingas (op. cit.) cannot be accounted for.
- This is again a difficult word. Only the Vā. list (No. 17) mentions the Magadhas and so it is rejected. Similarly the Samakas (No. 9) of the Br. list appears to be a corruption of the original name. Hence the choice will have to be confined between the Mukas (No. 17) of the Mat. and Malakas (No. 9) of the Mārk. list. The second name bears a suspicious likeness to Mūlaka, a country known to Indian tradition as being situated near the Aśmaka country. In the Buddhist texts 'Aśmaka-Mūlaka' is often treated as forming an identical pair (see also CL, p. 4, fn. 3) and since the Aśmakas have been placed in this division, the Mūlakas may be included accordingly. Dr. B. C. Law following Pargiter thinks that the reading should be Malajas who are mentioned in the Rāmāyaṇa as neighbours of the Kārūṣas (TAI, p. 397). But the name in the Rāmāyaṇa is Malada (Infra p. 37-38) the name of an eastern people in our text (No. 40).
- ⁶ Dr. B. C. Law suggests that the correct reading is Vṛṣṇika (TAI, p. 390). But the Vṛkas are known to us from other sources. Similarly the reading Andhakas as given by Dr. D. C. Sircar (op. cit.) is erroneous for excepting the Mat. all others namely the Vā. Mārk. and Br. read Vṛkas.

⁷ ii. 14. 26: Šūrasenā Bhadrakārā Bodhāķ śālvāķ.

Malsya Purana¹ testify to the close association of the Bhadrakaras with some well-known names of ancient Indian ethnography, such as the Salvas and the Sürasenas. Elsewhere in the Great Epic reference is made to the horses of the Bhadrakara country2 in conjunction with Yodha.3 In another passage it is said that Karna, in course of his conquests in the west, overpowered the ganas like the Bhadras, Rohitakas, Agneyas and Malavas: Bhadran Rohitakamiscaiva Agneyan Mālavanapı ganan sarvan vinirjitya. In the first place, it is clear that the Bhadras were a gana or a tribe like the famous people the Mālavas. Secondly, the geographical location of this tribe is indicated by the allusions contained in the passage cited above, where they are linked with other Punjab tribes. The collocation of the names suggest that the people lived somewhere to the north of the Robitakas. The name Robitaka plainly survives in modern Rohtak, the head-quarters of the district of the same name in the Punjab, 44 miles north-west of Delhi. As a place name Rohtak is perhaps a corruption of Ruddhakataka which occurs in our list of the Northern Division (No. 65). The Kaman stone-inscription mentions Rohitaka7 which presents us with an intermediate stage of the name between Ruddhakataka and the modern Rohtak. In the Rājataranginī⁸ the name is Rouhītaka, and the Mahābhārata refers to Rohitaka in connection with Nakula's conquest in the west.9

Being linked with the Rohītakas the Bhadras lived, as seems very likely, somewhere to their north, presumably in the Upper Gangetic basin. The river Ganges is described by the Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang in high terms. Thus he says,: "In the popular literature the river is called Fu-Shui or 'Happiness waters' that is,

^{1 114. 35:} Śūrasenā Bhadrakārā Bāhyāh.

² vii. 22. 53.

³ vii. 22 68: Yodhāśca Bhadrakārāśca.

⁴ iii. 253, 19-20. The assumption that the Bhadrakāras are the same as the Madrakāras (IHQ. XXI, 300, fn. 4) can hardly be maintained.

⁵ The use of the word gana in coins bears a tribal import (CCAI, p. LXXIX).

⁶ In Bharata's Nāṭya-śāstra Bhadra and Mālavya are described as two of the five types of the Mahāpurusas (IC. I. 852-53).

⁷ EI. XXIV. 832, line 4.

⁸ IV. 11, RT, I, p. 121. Cf. El. I. 15, vs. 23.

⁹ ii. 52.1. But local tradition of Rohtak avers that its ancient name was Rohtāsgarh or 'the fort of Rohtās', a Ponwār Rājā (IG. XXI. 521). Rohtak is connected with a settlement of the Yaudheyas in the 2nd century B.C. as 'Bahudhāsiyake' of their coin legend is equated with Harisna tract of the Punjab which includes Rohatak (IHQ. XXVII. 201).

the water of religious merit. Accumulated sins are effaced by a bath in the water of the river...." etc. This Fu-Shui or 'River of religious merit', i.e. the Ganges was known according to Julien as Mahābhadra.2 It may be noted that the observation made above of the Ganges by Hiuen Tsang was in connection with the Su-lu-Kin-na, or the Dehra Dun district,8 and Indian tradition attributes special sanctity to this upper course of the Ganges particularly near Hardwar and Kankhal. Hiuen Tsang's 'River of religious merit' evidently refers to this portion of the river. So Julien's Mahabhadra is a close rendering having regard to the merit of the river Ganges, for the word Bhadra is explained by Kern as meaning 'the Blessed'.4 This favours the suggestion that the people who lived around the Mahābhadra, that is, the upper stream of the Ganges in the Dehra-Dun-Kumaun regions, were considered as "the Blessed" and consequently earned the name 'Bhadras'. The following description of the Kāma country identified with Kumaun occurs in an inscription: "....full of fathomless virtues adorned with all kinds of comfort and whose population was of beautiful dress."5

The combined evidence of some Copper-plate Grants of the Katyūris of Kumaun,6 which paleographically may be referred to a period from the eighth to the tenth century A.D., points to the existence of a tribe of that name in that region. One of these records is inscribed on stone and belongs to the temple of Siva as Vyaghreśvar situated at the junction of the Gomati and Sarayu in Patti Katyūr of Kumaun. Four other Grants are engraved on copper and are preserved in the temple of Pandukesvar near Badrinath. The Grants referred to in the records are mostly villages situated in the Alakanda valley and the Kumaun region, and what is striking is that the tribal name of the writer in all these records is the same. The writer of the Plates of Lalitesvara Deva was Ganga Bhadra, in the plate of Desata Deva it was another Bhadra and in the plates of Padma Deva and Subbiksarāja Deva the scribe was Nanda Bhadra. It is rightly observed that "the coincidences in order and position in this respect cannot be accidental and clearly shows that

¹ YC, I, p. 519.

² Ibid. 320.

⁸ Ibid 317-319.

⁴ IA XXII 175 Cf Atharvaveda xx. 127. 10: "Janah sa bhadramedhati rāstre rājāah Pariksitah". It is translated as follows:—"The people thrive merrily in the kingdom etc." (Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, pp. 197-198).

⁵ IA X. 343, vs. 2.

⁶ NHH, Chap. III. pp 27-40.

all were derived from one common original in the family of the professional scribes whose tibal name was Bhadra".1

The evidence of some epigraphs and of the Great Epic suggests that the Bhadras were divided into several branches, as distinguishing epithets, prefixed to the name Bhadra, frequently occur. The Prabhadras, presumably a Punjab tribe², were one such people and so also the Uttamabhadras a republican clan of the early century of the Christian era³. During the time of Nahapāna, the greatest of the Kṣaharāta Satraps (119 to 124 A.D.),⁴ the power of the Uttamabhadras who were either his allies⁵ or his feudatory tribes⁶ was threatened by the Mālayas (=Mālavas) as is known from the Nasik cave inscription of Saka Uṣavadāta, the son-in-law of Nahapāna.⁷ The inscription indicates that the Uttamabhadras were living somewhere in Malwa.

The plates of the time of Paramāra Bhojadeva found at Tilak-wādā near Baroda refer to the family of the Śravaṇa-bhadras⁸ who had migrated from Kānyakubja⁹ and settled in Malwa. The

- 1 Ibid. 40 Other inscriptions testify that the name Bhadra generally stood for the tribal name of a class of people whose hereditary profession was scribing i.e. the work of a lipikāra. Thus the Kamauli Copper plate Grant of Vaidyadeva, king of Kāmarūpa was engraved by Karnabhadra who is described as an intelligent, courteous and accurate workman (El. H. 358). The author of the Bijholi rock inscription (V. S. 1226) was Guṇabhadra (v. 88), a mahā-muni, who belonged to the Mā(thu)ra Saṃgha (El. XXVI. 100). The Lucknow museum inscription of about the latter half of the 7th century A.D.' was similarly composed by a Bhadra (Bhandarkar's List No. 1778; El, XX. 252). The Badal pillar inscription was incised by Sūtradhāra Viṣṇu-Bhadra (El. II, 160-67). It appears that a Bhadra combined the function of composing and engraving an inscription and the term was more tribal and professional than geographical. But a Bhadra seems to have been a writer of plays as well. The Harivamśa refers to one professional dramatist of the name of Bhadra who entertained the sages by his dramatic talents (ii.91.26ff).
- ² Mbh., vii.22.43. Cf. Mbh., v. 57. S3: Pāñcālāśca Prabhadrakāḥ. They are also linked with the ganss like Daśārņa and Dāseraka in the Mahābhārata (vi. 50. 47): Dāśārņakāḥ Prabhadrāśca Dāseraka gaṇaiḥ saha. The Bhadras according to epic tradition were also a gaṇa like the Mālavas.
 - 3 Smith, Catalogue of Coins, Vol. I, sec. VII, pp. 160 ff.
 - ⁴ PHAI, p. 406. ⁵ Ibid. 409.
 - ⁶ R. C. Mazumdar, Corporate life in Ancient India, p. 274.
 - ⁷ EI. VIII. 79. ⁶ EI. XXI. 157.
- ⁹ The Narwal (11 miles to the SE. of Ujjain) plates again refer to Śravaṇa-bhadra as a locality from which Brahman donees No. 13 migrated to Malwa. The combined testimony of the two inscriptions indicates that Śravaṇa-bhadra must have been a place in Northern India near Kanoj (EI. XIII. 103). The Plates of Ratnadeva II of the Chedi year 880 again refers to a place called Śoṇabhadra in the Madhya-deśa which is regarded as identical with the hill where the river Son takes its rise (EI. XXII. 164 fn.).

Sravaņa-bhadras may also have been a section of the Epic and Purāṇic Bhadras and were probably a Kṣatriya tribe like the Uttama-bhadras referred to above. An inscription from Kolhapur again refers to the Mūlabhadras: Mūlabhadra-Vamisodbhava.¹ A South-Indian inscription of S.S. 1183 records that ten persons bearing the appellation Vīra-bhadra were appointed as 'Grāmasya Rakṣakāh' of a certain village.² The Record shows that 'Vīra-bhadra' was the official designation of a class of persons who were appointed to carry out punishments for certain offences.

2) ARIMEDAS

A people of this name does not find any mention either in the Vedic and Post-vedic literature, or in the Epics and Purāṇas. Their identity is not very clear but the reference underlying this entry is probably to a people who sacrificed their enemies.

In the Mount Abu inscription of Samarasimha, (V.S. 1342) which gives the vamśāvali of the Guhila princes of Mewād4 from Bappa or Bappaka, the heroic exploits and military qualities of the Guhila princes are profusely eulogised. The name of almost every ruling prince suggested heroic exploits.⁵ The inscription itself refers to the reign of the Prince Samara of Medapāta which was founded by Bappaka: Bappaken=o-Kaihlāvanyotkara-nirjjit-āmara-purahśrī Medapātābhīdhām.6 The word Medha of the name Arimedha survives in Medapāta by which the famous Rajput State Mewār or Udaipur was known. Bühler says that 'Medapāṭa is the Sanskrit form of Měvād. The word means etymologically "the country of the Medas", the Mers of modern times, who still inhabit the Aravali hills, on the boundary of Mevād.8 These people possibly gave their name to 'Mēdantakampuram' which was the 'Rājadhānī' of Nāgabhata, son of Narabhata, as recorded in the Jodhpur inscription of Pratihara Bauka (V.S. 894). The city is identified with Merta¹⁰ to the west of Aimer in Jodhpur. It thus appears that the Medas or Mers lived, as at present, in Southern Rajputana, 11 particularly in

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1 EI. XIX. 37. lines 5-8.
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² JAHRS. IV. 153, 160, lines 57-8.

⁸ IA. XVI. 345-55.

⁴ See also, Asiatic Researches, Vol. XVI p. 292.

⁵ Cf-Arisimha, IA. XVI. 353, verse 30-31.

⁶ Ibid. 347, lines 6-7.

⁷ EI. XXIV. 307.

⁸ I.A. VI. 191. See also Elliot and Dowson. The History of India, I.p. 523.

⁹ El. XVIII. 95, line 7. 10 Ibid. 94.

¹¹ JA. VII. 254 The Media are now found also on the coast of Baluchistan (IG. VI. 288).

Medapata or Mewar which was possibly the home of the Arimedhas1 as well. We have here then, what appears to be highly probable, the historical proof of the presence of the Rajputs of Mewar in their actual fatherland as early as the time of Varahamihira if not earlier. The name was less an ethnic, in the rigorous acceptation of the word, than a general appellation applied by the Indians to the warrior clans renowned from antiquity. Although not mentioned in ordinary Indian literature, the tradition of the Arimedhas and particularly of their kindred may be traced back to an earlier period. Ancient Indian tradition knows of a Kşatriya Brāhman sub-family called the Priyamedhas who like the Maudgalyas originated from the Paurava dynasty.² The Priyamedhas and Arimedhas may be the offshots of the Medhas:3 the value of Varāhamihira's notice of Arimedha lies mainly in the fact that it presents us with an accurate enough original of that Sanskrit form of the people's name, which on independent etymological scrutiny and inscriptional evidence, we must assume, was the name of the inhabitants of Mewar or Udaipur.

Cunningham thinks⁴ that the Medi or Medas were in the Punjab as early at least as the time of Virgil in B.C. 40 to 30 and that the location of Medi on the Hydaspes, by classical writers of the first century of the Christian era, is a proof of the antiquity of the people. There is perhaps no literary or epigraphic evidence to support this view. But the Great Epic mentions a people called Yodhas and Bodhas coupled with the Bhadrākaras: Yodhākca Bhadrakārākca⁵; Bhadra-Kārā Bodhāh.⁶ Varāhamihira in his Brhat-samhitā opens his list of nations of the Central Region as follows:—Bhadrārimedhāh⁷ etc. This clears up the tradition regarding the associates of the Bhadras. Though an erroneous reading, it seems difficult to believe that the

¹ An inscription of the reign of Kākatīya Ganapatideva (Hyderabad Archaeological Series No. 4) gives a list of kings mostly of northern India in which mention is made of a Lord of Arimarda conjoined with the king of Hūṇa and Magadha. The identity and location of the Arimarda country is uncertain but Arimedha and Arimarda bear almost a common meaning.

² AIHT, p. 245. Priya-medha is the name of a seer in the Rgveda (i. 189. 9; viii. 5. 25). In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 22) the name is referred to as patronymic (Praiya-medha) of some priests. The Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (ii. 1. 9) knows three Praiyamedhas and in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (i. 3. 15) they are called Bharadvājas.

³ Dr. J. J. Modi supposes that the Medha or Mers of Rajputana are the descendants of those ancient Huns who invaded India in the 5th century. Modi—Presidential Address, Fourth Oriental Conference, p. 10.

⁴ AR. II. 51-54.

⁵ Mbh., vii. 22.68.

⁶ Ibid. ii. 14.26. The Matsya Purāņa reads: Bhadrakārā Bāhyāh (114-35).

⁷ See chart No. 1.

information underlying this entry (Yodhas and Bodhas) in the Mahabharata referred to any other people than the Medhas.¹ The Kumaon plates² of the eight century A.D. noted above mention the Medas who are said to have settled in the Punjab.³ But other notices by Muhammadean writers indicate that they migrated from the Upper Punjab to Sindh. As early as the 7th century A.D. the Jata along with the Meds are found to be living in Sindh and were ruled by a Brahman dynasty.⁴

3) MANDAVYAS

Māndavya occurs in the Satapatha Brāhmana⁵ as the name of a teacher. Reference to the name is found in the Sānkhāyana Aranyaka.⁶ The mention of the Mamdavas in a Brāhmī inscription which reads as follows:—"Gift of Kumāra Madava (Māndava), son (?) of S (i) vama, the chief (? para) of the Mamdavas (Māndavas)", obviously carries an ethnical meaning just like the 'Mamdavānam' of Kudā inscription ⁸ But the name starting from a geographical and ethnical meaning became fixed as a title of honour in certain families ⁹

A Pratihāra inscription tells us¹⁰ that the Gurjaras who were ruling over Gurjaratrā¹¹ built a large rampart round the fort of Māndavyapura which was gained by their own prowess¹². Māndavyapura as the name suggests was obviously the city of the Māndavyas, the ancient capital of Marwar.¹⁸ It is regarded as identical with modern Mandor, a ruined town in the State of Jodhpur, about 5 miles to the north of Jodhpur city. The date of the fort's foundation may

¹ Dr B C Law wr tes that the Bodhas were a people of the eastern districts of the Punjab (TAI p 397) For a full discussion on the Meds, see Elliot and Dowson, History of Ind a I, pp 519-530

² NHH ch III pp 43-44

Cunningham thinks that (AR III 116) the tribe is referred to in the Mungar plate of Devapaladova (Eli XVIII 306) which reads as following — purogamēdāndraka etc (lines 36-7)

⁴ Glossary, II, p 362

⁵ x 6.59

⁶ v 1 2

⁷ Luders' List, No 1049 p 111

⁸ Inscriptions from the Cave-Temples of Western India, 1881, No 14

⁹ Jacobi, in Ind Ant, VII 254-257

¹⁰ EI XVIII 90-91

¹¹ The Dohad inscription of the Chalukya King Jayasunha Deva, mentions distinctly the land of Gurjara, the metropolis of which was Anahilapataka and distinguishes the country from Surastra, Malava and Sindhu (IA X 160).

¹²EI XVIII 95, line 6 Mandavyapura-durgge

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probably be placed in the sixth century A.D. This may indicate that the Mandavyas settled in Marwar and this position agrees well with what has been said of the Arimedhas.

4) SALVAS

The name Salva occurs in a Sutra (IV.2.76) of Pagini and the scholiast adds that Vaidhumagni was a city of the Salvas. Other sutras of Pagini, as interpreted in the scholiastic work, show that the Salva janapada consisted of six parts² (Pap., IV. 1.173) and that the Salvas belonged to the Kacchādi-gapa like the Kaśmīras and Karūsas (Pan. IV. 2.133; IV.I.169). In a Brāhmanical text the Salvas are spoken of as dwelling on the banks of the Yamuna. Cunningham thinks that the country of the Salvas lay between the Sarasvatī and the Jumna and was adjacent to the Matsyas. According to Pargiter the Salva country was on the western side of the Aravali Hills; their city Mārttikāvata having been situated on the north-eastern limits of the modern Guzerat. But the chief city of the Salvas may represent an original like Salvapura which was perhaps changed into Salvar, then Halwar and finally into Alwar.

In the Mahāhhārata the Sālvas are most often coupled together with the Metsvas forming almost an identical pair, and such combinations as Sālvāmatsyāstathā^b refer to the intimate connection

¹ P C Chrkravarty, The Art of War in Ancient India, p. 139, fn. 4; El. IX 278 fn 8

² The exparts are Udumbara. Tilakhala, Madrakāra, Yugandhara, Bhulinga and Saradatta. In the Varjayantī Sālva is identified with Kārakutsīya and it is said that it consisted of six parts. Strangely enough, the same set of six names is given except that it reads Mahākāra and Saradamda (VJN, p. 38. vs. 38-9) against Mudrakāra and Saradatta.

⁸ Ved Ind. II 187

⁴ AR XX 120.

⁵ MP P 340, fn

⁶ Ib'd 342, in The people of this city are linked with the Trigartas in a passage of the Mahābhārata · Trigarttān Mārttikāvatān (vii, 68, 10). In the Brhat-samh tā, Mārttikāvata is grouped with Talesašdā (XVI. 26) and Gāndhāra. Mārttikāvata is to be distinguished from Mṛttikāvatī which according to the Mahā-bhārata (ii) 253 10) was to the south of Vatsabhūmi (AIHT, p. 269, fn. 4). In early Jama books, Mattiāval, 1e., Mṛttikāvatī appears as the capital of Dasanna (see infra p 30, fn 2). According to the Harivamśa (i.36.15), it was situated on the Lank of the river Narmadā. For a detailed discussion on the Mṛttikāvatīs See GDRD, pp. 59-40.

⁷ AR XX 120; DD, p. ii. Other modes of deriving the name Alwar that are current, are from Alpur or 'strong city' and Arbaipur or the city of the Arbalii (Arāvalli) range (IG. v. 267).

⁸ vi. 20. 18 : śālvāmateyāh.

⁹ vi. 18. 12.

existing between the two tribes, and the contiguity of their respective territories.

The Matsyas are a familiar name in Indian ethnography which goes back even to the Vedic times¹. The people and their capital city are mentioned in the Jaina *Prajňāpanā*, a work of great antiquity.² Their country flourished as one of the sixteen Mahā-

1 vii. 18. 6. The theory that 'Matsya' in the Rgvedic passage means 'fish' is not supported by the context in which the word occurs (Vcd. Ind., II. 121).

The text is Vairāda Vattha (Chchha). But Vattha is already mentioned in conjunction with Kosambi. So the text in the present case may be changed into Matsya instead of Vattha. It would thus appear that Matseşu Vairāţapuram is meant here (IA. XX. 375, fn. 64). In connection with Jaina Cosmography, Dr. W. Kirfel gives the full list of the Jaina Upānga styled the Prajñāpanā as framed by Weber m his Indische studien. But Dr. Kirfel has improved the list, by utilising the geographical details found in Nemicandra's Pravacanasāroddhāraprakaraṇa where the chief cities of the different ethnic groups are also set forth. He has also made use of another text called Ratnasāra, which records the number of villages going under each name. The full list of Dr. Kirfel (DKDI, pp. 225-26) is reproduced below:—

Namen der Völker Namen der Hauptstädte Magadha Rājagṛha (Rāyagiha) Aṅga Campā

Vanga (Ratnasāra : Tilanga) Tāmraliptī (Tāmalitti) Kalinga Kāncanapura (Kancana)

Kāśi Bāṇārasi
Kośala Sāketa (Sācya)
Kuru Gajapura (Gaya)

Kusartha (Kusattha, Ratnasara:

Kuśāvartta) Saurika (Ratnasāra : Serīpura)

Pañcāla Kāmpilya
Jaṅgala Ahicchatra

Saurāṣṭra (Soraṭṭha) Dvāravatī (Bāravaī)

Videha Mithilā
Vaccha Kauśāmbī
Šāṇḍilya Nandipura
Malaya Bhaddilapura

Vatsa (Vaccha, Nemicandra: Matsya, Maccha; Ratnasāra refers to Vairāta

people and Vaccha as their city). Vairat

Varana

Daśārņa (Dasaņņa)

Cedi (Cei, Ratnasara: Vaidi)

Sindhu Sauvīra Sūrasena

Bhriga (Bhanga)

Kupāla Lāṭa (Lāḍa)

Kekaya (Keat-addha)

Vairāta (pura) (Vaīrāda)

Accha (purī)

Mṛttikāvatī (Mattiāvaī) Soktikāvatī (Sottiavaī) Vītabhaya (Vīabhaya) Mathura (Mahurā) Pāpā (Pāvā)

Māsapurī

Šrāvesti (Sāvatthī) Kotīvarsa (Kodīvarisa) Svetambikā (Seaviā) janapadas in the time of the Buddhist Anguttara Nikāya¹. In the Manu-smṛti, the Matsyas appear as one of the select few of the Aryan races who were noted for their devotion to Brahmanical ideals. The poet of the Mahābhāṛata similarly refers to the purity of their social and religious ideals².

The Matsya-rājya³ or Virāṭa-rājya of the Mahāhhārata had its capital at Virāṭa-nagara, which has been identified with the modern town of Bairat,⁴ 4½ miles north by north-east of Jaipur city in Rajputana. The Matsyas had another city known as Upaplavya⁵ which lay on the outskirt of Virāṭanagara.⁶ All these show that the Matsya country centered round Bairat, including the modern States of Alwar, Jaipur and Bharatpur³. In this position the Matsyas were the neighbours of the Śālvas.

The earliest detailed account of the people and their country is that of the Chinese pilgrim, Hiuen Tsang, who visited the country, but did not refer to it by that name as such. His P'o-li-ye-ta-lo which undoubtedly represented the Matsya janapada is regarded as the same as Pāryātrā⁸ now represented by Bairat in Rajputana, situated N. N. E. of Jaypur. 'He reached the kingdom going south-

¹ The Sexteen States, 'Solasa Mahājanapada' that existed in India during the days of the Buddha are mentioned in the Anguttara N.kāya (Pāli Text Society. Vol. 1, p. 213; iv. pp. 252, 256, 260). These were:— 1) Kāsī 2) Kosala 3) Anga 4) Magadha 5) Vajji 6) Malla 7) Cetrya 8) Vamsa 9) Kuru 10) Pancāla 11) Maccha 12) Sūrasena 13) Assaka 14) Avanti 15) Gandhāra 16) Kamboj. A short list of sixteen kingdoms is also found in the Jaina Bhagavatī sūtra, which according to Dr W Kirfel was more ancient than the longer list of the Prajūdpanā (DKDI, p. 225). The kingdoms were:—1) Anga 2) Vanga 3) Magadha (Magaha) 4) Malaya 5) Mālavaka (Mālavaya) 6) Accha 7) Vatsa (vaccha) 8) Koccha 9) Paḍha 10) Lāḍha (Rūdha) 11) Vajji 12) Māli or Molī 13) Kāšī 14) Kosala 15) Avāha 16) Sambhuttara.

² Infra p. 35.

⁸ Mbh (B)., iv. 6, 12,

⁴ CL, p. 53. Bairāt is a place of very great antiquity: two inscriptions of Asoka have been found within a mile of the town.

⁵ Mbh., iv. 72. 14.

⁶ PHAI, p. 56. In the Ain-i-Akbari we read that the Subah of Dehli extended lengthwise from Palwal to Ludhianah. Palwal is supposed to have figured in the ancient texts under the name of Apelava. Does it refer to the Upaplavya of the Mahābhārata? It may be noted that Palwal (=Upaplavya) is mentioned as a Mahal of the Sarkār of Delhi (AIA. II, p 278, fn. 2, p. 286). But Bīrat (Parāt) is mentioned as a Mahal of the Sarkār of Alwar in the Subah of Agra (AIA. II. p. 191). The city of Vairāt (Perāth) which existed in the time of Akbar was noted for its copper mines (AIA. II, p. 181).

⁷ CL, p. 58.

⁸ YC. I. p. 300.

west about 800 li from She-to-t'u-lu i.e. Sirhind¹. Cunningham's opinion to read the distance as '1800' li instead of 800 li, seems to agree with the distance between Bairat and Sirhind which is about 220 miles if one li is reckoned as 1/8th of a mile.² But in the pilgrim's account, P'o-li-ye-ta-lo or Bairat is designated both as kingdom and its capital city, the former being about 3000 li in circuit and the latter about 14 or 15 li, or 3 miles in circuit.³ Hiuen Tsang records⁴ that grain grew abundant in the country, but there were few flowers and fruits. As for other features, he noticed that the people were resolute and fierce⁵ who had no love for learning and dislike for the heretics. The king, a member of the Vaisya caste, was noted for his bravery and martial valour.

The Matsya tribe was divided into several branches, as such terms as Pūti Matsya, Apara Matsya, Vīra Matsya and Yauti Matsya would indicate. The Pūti Matsyas may have been the same as the Eastern Matsyas who lived in the southern portion of Tirhoot⁶; the Padma Purāna seems to this.7 The Apara Matsyas who are mentioned in the Mahabhārata,8 probably lived on the north bank of the Chambal9. The country of the Vira Matsyas, according to the Rāmāyana, 10 lay on the confluence of the Ganges and Sarasvatī. The position of the Yauti Matsyas mentioned in the Great Epic¹¹ is uncertain. Epigraphic evidence points to the existence of a Matsya kingdom in the Vizagapatam region. 12 Coorg in South India was the seat of a kingdom of this name. 18 It may be noted that there was also a Virāta-nagara in South India.14

The Matsya country was contiguous to the Surasena Janapada

¹ See infra.

² 1800 li divided by 8 gives us 225 miles But Cunningham makes the total distance 283 miles the equivalent of 1800 li (CAGI, p. 166).

⁸ This corresponds to the size of the ancient mound of vairāt which was about a mile in length and half a mile in breadth (YC, I, p. 300).

⁴ BR, I. p. 179.

⁵ It is said that the people of Virāţa always enjoyed a great fame for their valour (Ibid. fn. 37). It was one of Manu's instructions that the van of an army should be composed of men of Matsya or Virāţa (Manu, vii, 193)

⁶ DD, p. 129.

⁷ Svargakhanda, 3 48: Pütimatsyäsca Kuntalah kusakastatha.

⁸ ji. 31. 4.

⁹ JASB. 1895 p 251.

¹⁰ h. 71. 5.

¹¹ Mbh (B), v. 4, 20.

¹² EI V. 108.

¹⁸ DD, pp. 128-129

¹⁴ Bomb. Gaz., 1.2. p. 558.

on the north and east. The Buddhist Anguttara Nikāya combines the two janapadas of Maccha and Sūrasena, as Mahābhāratā does these two ethnic names.¹

The Surasenas are not mentioned in the Vedic literature but Brahmanical tradition connects them with the family of Yadu, a name which occurs in the Rgveda. Thus the Harivamia states³ that King Surasena of Mathura, who was also known as Ugrasena belonged to the Bhoja family.4 The Bhojas were one of the five sub-tribes constituting the Haihayas, who claimed descent from Yadu. Another ancient tradition ascribes the country name to Satrughna's son Śūrasena. Mention is made of the people and their chief city in a list of the Āriyas furnished by a Jaina $Up\bar{a}_{ij}q\bar{a}_{i}$, which dates back 'to a remote period': Mahurā ya Sūrasēņā.8 Mahurā is the Sanskrit form of Mathura, and was known to ancient writers under a variety of designations.9 According to the Harivamsa it was the capital of Sūrasena,10 and was situated on the bank of the yamunātīre sphītā janapadāyutā.11 Manu nibistā Yamunā: writes12 that the Sūrasenas were a people of Madhya-deśa particularly of Brahmarsidesa; and so occupied a position of great importance in Indo-Aryan Society.13 The Greek writers refer to Sourasenoi and the cities Methora and Cleisobora; the former being

¹ n. 31. 1-2, iv. 1, 11 . Matsyāśca Śūrascnāh Patuccarāh.

² Ved. Ind., II. 185.

³ HV. i 33 56

⁴ HV 1. 54. 62-63

⁵ CH. I. 316. Prof. Rapson says that the Haihayas, Asmakas and Vitihotras, like the Sūrasenas belonged to the great family of the descendants of Yadu.

⁶ AIHT, p. 171.

⁷ IA. XX. 375; supra p. 30, fn. 2.

⁸ Mahurā is evidently Mathurā and in Prākrit we come across such forms as Madhurā (Luder's List No. 1545, p. 161) and Mathulā (Ibid. No. 937, p. 95). The natives of Mathurā were called Māthuras (Ibid. No. 85, p. 17). Muttra city is on the right bank of the Jumna on the road from Agra to Delhi. But in the list of the *Upānga* prepared by Dr. Kirfel mention is made of Pāpā (Pāvā) as the capital of Śūrasena (See supra p. 30).

⁹ Thus the lexicographer Yādavaprakāśa writes that Madhurā which was also known as Madhūṣikā, Mathurā and Madhūpaghnā was situated in Surasena (VJN, p. 159, v. 6). Hemacandra knows of Madhurā and Madhūpaghnā as being the synonyms for Mathurā (Abhidhāna, p. 890), while Purusottamadeva (TKS, p. 32) states that Mathurā is Madhūpaghnā.

¹⁰ HV. ii. 34. 22.

¹¹ HV. i. 54. 21. For a long description of Mathura see verses 56-62.

¹² ii. 19.

¹³ B. C. Law, Ancient Mid-Indian Katriya tribes (Thacker Spink & Co.), Vol. I. pp. 80 ff.

known to Ptolemy as 'Modoura of the Gods.'1 The Surasenas occupied "the Muttra district and probably some of the territory still farther south." In our list of the Madhya-desa peoples, the name Surasenas occurs (No. 18) along with the Mathurakas (No. 15) which shows that the two names were synonymous and were convertible.2 Vātsyāyana in his Kāmasūtra (3rd Century A.D.) refers to the Surasenas but the information underlying the allusion shows that they had lost the ancient purity in their manners and customs. Manu, however, characterised them as an ideal people, the best representatives of Brahmanical culture.4 It is just possible that the degradation as noticed by Vātsyāyana, was due to the intercourse of the Surasenas with the Greeks who had occupied that region in the early years of the second century B.C., as alluded to in tre Gārgā-samhitā: "Then the viciously valiant Greeks, after reducing Sāketa, Pañcāla country and Mathura, will reach or take Kusumadhvaja (Pali-bothra).5

In the time of Hiuen Tsang it was a rich and fertile country, where cultivation was properly attended to and grain grew in abundance. The manners of the ancient Sūrasenakas or Māthurakas were 'soft and complacent.' They set themselves assiduously to the cultivation of religious merit and were highly virtuous and honest.

The Sürasenas, the Matsyas and the Pañcālas formed a group of people whose territories were contiguous to each other. It is made clear in the Mahābhārata,⁶ where it is stated that the Pāṇdava brothers while travelling in disguise, left the Pañcāla country and the river Kālindī; and then passing through the Sūrasena country finally arrived in the Matsya-visaya. The Matsyas and Pañcālas are very commonly grouped together in the Great Epic, having ordinarily as their companions the Kekayas. Such combinations as 'Matsyapāñcāla Kekayah,'' 'Kaikeyāmatsya Pāñcāla,''s or 'Pañcālermatsya'' and similar other statements.'' throw light on the tradi-

¹ MT. p. 129.

² In the Vaijayanti, Sūrasena is equated with (VJN, p. 37, v. 24) Sambhāla—a name which does not seem to have been known to other writers.

³ Yasodhara in his commentary says that they were settled on the southern bank of the river Kausamba (VKS, p. 411).

⁴ Bühler, Laws of Manu, pp. 82-83.

⁵ Kern, Brhat-samhitā, Intro. p. 87 et seq. For a detailed history of Mathurā see TAI, pp. 40-45.

⁶ iv. 5. 4ff.

⁷ Mbh (B), vii. 39. 18.

⁸ Ibid. vii. 36. 19.

⁹ Ibid.vii. 138. 8.

¹⁰ Ibid. v. 54. 17; vii. 144. 108.

tional inter-relationship of the peoples mentioned. But of all these peoples, the Kurus were the closest neighbours of the Pancillas with whom they were perhaps united in the time of the Brahmanas¹, for they are rarely referred to except being coupled with the Kurus², who occupied Delhi and the adjoining portion of the Gangetic-Doab—a belt of territories which thus abutted on the Pancilla Janapada.

The Kuru country was the centre from which Indo-Aryan culture spread throughout the whole country. In many texts the Kurus and their associates, the Pańcālas, "pass as the models of good form" their kings being the example for other kings, their Brahmanas being famous in the literature of the *Upanisads.*¹ To this group, belonged the Matsyas and Sūrasenas, who shared with the Kurus and Pańcālas, the holy spot called Brahmarṣi-deśa. They were the four great peoples, whom tradition invests with all that is best in Brahmanical culture. The poet of the Māhābhārata, gives a very pointed expression to the sense of regard and esteem felt for them when he says:—

"Brāhmain Pañcāļāḥ Kauraveyāstu Dharmain Satyain Matsyāḥ Śūrasenāśca yajñam".

According to ethnographical tradition recorded in the Purāṇas, the Central Zone of India from Bihar up to Rajputana, which lay skirting the banks of the Jumuna, belonged to the Vāsava kings; a sub-line of the Kaurava dynasty. A Kaurava prince called Vasa conquered Cedi,⁵ and obtained the title 'Caidyo paricara', the overcomer of the caidyas. He established each of his five sons in five separate kingdoms. Thus the eldest son Brhadrath took Magadha,

¹ Ved. Ind., 1. 165, and fn 1; Mbh; vi. 89.

² Cf. Ait. Brah, viii. 14.

³ CH. I 118; Ved. Ind., I. 165.

⁴ viii. 45. 28 The notice given by Hiuen Tsang of the Kanyākubja country and its people is worth quoting inasmuch as, it gives us a glimpse of the people who in all probability represented the Pancālas. He says "The flowers and weeds, the lakes and ponds, bright and pure and shining like mirrors, (are seen on every side). The people are well off and contented, the houses are rich and well found. Flowers and fruits abound in every place The climate is agreeable and soft, the manners of the people honest and sincere. They are noble and gracious in appearance For clothing they use ornamented and bright-shining (fabrics) They apply themselves much to learning, and in their travels are very much given to discussion (on religious subjects). (The fame of) their pure language is far spread". (BR, I. pp. 206-207).

The country name Cedi, according to tradition was derived, from Cidi a Yadava prince (AIHT, p. 272).

⁶ This form of the name is found in an inscription (IA, VIII. 15-16). Cf. The Chetiya Jataka, No. 422.

Pratyagrahā repaired to Cedi, Kaśa or Kuśāmba evidently had Kauśāmbhī¹, Lalittha's share was Karuṣa, and the fifth one is said to have taken Māthailya or Māruta, which in all probability must be the Matsya realm². Tradition thus links up Magadhas, Kārūṣas, Cedis, Vatsas and Matsyas into one one ethnic and political group; just as the belt of Eastern peoples such as the Angas, Vangas, Kalingas, Puṇḍras and Suhmas were grouped into another by a similar tradition. From a geographical point of view this position as outlined seems to be quite in order. The Great Epic furnishes a short list of the Madhya-deśa Janapadas, which are described as lying particularly around the Kuru realm:⁸

Santi ramyā janapadā bahvannāh paritaḥ Kurūna Pāñcālāścedimatsyāśca Sūrasenāh Paṭaccarāh Daśārnā Navarāstrāśca Mallāh Śālvā Yugandharāh Kuntirāṣṭram suvistīrnam Surāṣṭrāvantayastathā.

This statement presents certain irregularities, for all these tribal Janapadas were not situated encircling the Kurus from a regional point of view. Surastra, Avanti and Daśarna lay far off from the The geographical location of some of these tribes, as attempted before, shows that Sālva, Matsya, Sūrasena and Pañcāla Janapadas were situated 'paritah Kurūn'. The Cedi realm did never abut on any point on the Kuru country; the Janapadas of Matsya, Sūrasena and Pañcāla had shut out the Cedi country from the plains of Thanesar and Delhi. But Cedis were the neighbours of the Pañcālas and the Matsyas, on the north and west respectively, and so the combination 'Pāñcālāścedimatsyāśca' agrees well with the geographical setting. Again, in the Great Epic, the Cedis are invariably coupled with the Matsyas and Kārūsas, their neighbours on the west and east respectively. Such combinations as 'Cedimatsyānāmi and Cedimatsya-Karūsāsca are copiously mentioned. Sometimes the Matsyas are omitted and replaced by the Kāśis resulting in groupings like 'Cedi-Kāsī-Kārūsāmām' which are by no

¹ Tradition records the Kuiu origin of the kings of Kausambhī, for the elder line of Kuru kings moved there when Hastinapura was threatened by the erosion of the Ganges (PHAI p 20 and 38).

² AIHT, pp 118 and 294.

⁸ Mbh, iv. 111-12

⁴ Mbh (B)., v. 69.16.

⁵ Ibid. vi. 54. 8.

⁶ Ibid. vi. 59. 59 ff. See S. B. Chaudhuri—'Cedıs'—in IHQ, XXVII, Sept. 1951, p. 250 ff.

means rare. This shows that Cedi, Kāśī, Kārūṣa, or Cedi, Matsya, Kārūṣa, was a compact ethnic group.

The Kārūsas², were the eastern neighbours of the Cedis. Their origin is carried directly back to an eponymous ancestor Karusa, one of the nine sons of Manu, from whom numerous Ksatriya clans sprang up. The Kārūşas, according to the Bhāgavata Purāna, were the defenders both of their faith (Brahmanical religion) and their realm, (Uttarapatha) and they were also determined fighters.8 Later on, the Kārūṣa country may have fallen into the hands of a Vāsava prince as mentioned before. According to the scholiast on Pāṇini, the Karūsas are alluded to along with the Salvas and Bhargas by the grammarian⁴ in the sūtra IV.1.178. At a later age the name occurs in the works of mediaeval lexicographers, such as Hemacandra, Yādavaprakāśa and Purusottamadeva as a synonym of Brhadgrha.⁵ In the Kāvyamīmāmsā, Brhadgrha is given as the name of a mountain of Pūrva-deśa⁶. The Kārūsas lived in a hilly country in which Rewa⁷ occupied a central position⁸, corresponding perhaps to the Baghelkhand region. In this position, it lay to the south of the Klāśis, between the Cedis on the west, and the Magadhas on the east, thus encircling the Kaimur Range which strikes across Baghelkhand from south-west to north-east. On the east, the Karusa country must have extended upto the western confines of south Bihar, and even included the Shahabad District.9 The Brahmanda Purāna¹⁰ says that Vedagarbhapuri, which is the modern Buxar, was situated in Kārūṣa. A nineteenth century epigraph indicates that even at that time the Shahabad District was called the Klārūsadeśa.11

A tradition recorded in the Rāmāyana groups the Kārūṣas and

¹ Mbh (B)., i. 117.44; v. 186.2; vi. 47.4.

² In the *Harṣa-carīta* (Trans. by Cowell and Thomas, p. 193) we have the form Karūṣas.

³ Bhāgavata Purāņa, ix 2. 14ff; AIHT. p 255. A passage of the Hurrvamia which refers to this runs thus: Karūşasya tu Kārūşāḥ Kṣatriyā Yuddhadurmmadāh (i. 10.29).

⁴ See supra p. 29.

⁵ Abhidhāna, p. 383; VJN, p. 38, v. 36; TKS, p. 31.

⁶ Kāvya, p. 93.

⁷ The earliest inhabitants of the State of Rewa are said to have been the Bālands, the Bolingae of Ptolemy who have left their name in the town of Balwaniya, 35 miles to the S. SE. of Mirzapore (AR. XXI. 92).

⁸ MP, p. 341.

⁹ DD, p. 95.

¹⁰ Purva khanda, ch. 5.

¹¹ AR. III. 70.

the Maladas together, and traces the origin of the two names to a common mythology.¹ It is stated that the region to the south of the Jāhnavī was covered with dense forest, where there were two flourishing Janapadas of the name of Malada and Kārūṣa²: Maladāśca Kūrūṣāśca muditā dhana dhūnyataḥ.³ The indication is here to the region lying south of the Ganges, from its junction with the Jumna as far as the Shahabad District; for the Gangetic basin in Bihar was a country of plains, besides being the name of well-known peoples like the Magadhas and the Angas. This location of the Kārūṣa and Malada Janapadas in a forest country, obviously refers to the Baghelkhand tract, particularly its eastern portion which "is a rough hilly tract cut up by a succession of long parallel ridges belonging to the Vindhyan system, heavily clothed in jungle" It thus follows that the Malada-Karūṣa, embraced a great portion of the modern Baghelkhand-Mirzapur-Shahabad region.

5) NIPAS

They are a forgotten people of Indian ethnography. The references to them in the Mahābhārata are not very conclusive. Mention is made of Nīpa vamša, and another passage records Janamejaya's connection with it. Elsewhere Nīpa is treated as a country like Anūpa', and in the Bhīşma Parva list Nīpa is described as a country of the south. But the Harivamša clearly states that king Nīpa was a scion of the Paurava family ('Pauravānvaya'), and was ruling over the Pañcāla country. Pargiter points out that a Paurava king called Nīpa had his capital in Kāmpilya. He might have been the progenitor of the race, for the Matsya Purāna says that to him hundred sons were born known as Nipas: Nīpā iti samākhyātā rājānah sarva eva te¹². It is further said that king

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<sup>1</sup> Rām., i, ch. 24.
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² Ibid. i. 24. 12-16.

⁸ Ibid. v. 25.

⁴ IG. VI. 185.

⁵ Mbh (B)., ii. 8. 22; v. 69. 18.

⁶ Ibid. ii. 49. 20.

⁷ Ibid. vi. 9. 63.

⁸ HV, i. 21. 41.

⁹ HV, i. 20. 44-45.

¹⁰ MP, p. 350, fn.

¹¹ AIHT. p. 117.

^{12 40, 52-53.}

Ugrāyudha extinguished the race of the Nīpas¹. In the Raghu-, vainša a Nīpa king is described as the Lord of Sūrasena.²

6) UJJIHANAS

The reference is here to the people of a small locality. The Rāmāyana mentions a place called Ujjihānā³ and the indications are that it was somewhere in the Upper Gangetic Plain; for Bharata passed through it in course of his journey from Rājagrha to Ayodhyā after he had crossed the Ganges, and advanced considerably towards Ayodhyā. The name in the epic clearly refers to the Ujjihānas of our list. Ujhānī, a town in the district of Budaun (U.P.) lying 8 miles west of the town of that name, is very plainly a contracted form of Ujjihāna, and this identity is supported by other considerations. According to tradition, the modern town of Ujhānī was originally called Pipariā, from a number of Pīpal trees found there. Curiously enough, the Rāmāyana has a reference to this: Udyānamujjihānāyāḥ priyakā yatra pādapāḥ. 5

7) SANKHYATAS

They seem to be an old people, a forgotten sub-line of the Bharata tribe, known as the Sānkrātas of Sānkrtyas, who according to Pargiter are to be connected with the river Carmanvati (Chambal). Their king Rantideva Sānkrti a Paurava had his capital at Daśapura, which lay on the river Chambal. In the Great Epic mention is made of a people called Utsaba-sanketas in connection with a city of the Pauravas. They were conquered by Arjuna somewhere in the north, and are described as a group of seven peoples. Elsewhere they are described as great heroes who were conquered by Nakula somewhere in the west.

8) MARUS

Maru is mentioned in the *Taittirīya Āranyaka*.¹⁰ and usually refers to the desert country of Rajputana. Other such terms carrying a similar geographical meaning are Marusthalī, Marubhūmi and

¹ Ibid. v. 60. Also Hv, i 20. 32ff.

² vi. 45-46.

⁸ Rām., ii. 71. 12.

⁴ IG. XXIV. 112.

⁵ Ram., ii. 71. 12.

⁶ AIHT, p 7.

⁷ Ibid. p. 274.

⁸ ij. 27. 16.

⁹ ii. 32. 9. In the Bhisma Parva list of the Mahābhārata the name Utsaba-Sanketa occurs as a Janapada of the South (vi. 9. 61).

¹⁰ Ved. Ind., II. 185,

Marudhanva.1 The people may have been the same as Marohae of Pliny,2 and in the Junagad inscription of Rudradamana the country named Maru is placed between Svabhra (the Sabarmati region) and Kachcha (Cutch).³ This points to the southern portion of Rajputana near the Rann of Cutch. In the Ghatiyala inscription of Kakkuka, mention is made of a country called Mādathe ancient name of the Jaisalmer State.4 In another inscription, Mada is put in conjunction with Maru, which presumably stood for the Jodhpur State.⁵ The two names when put together gives the form Maru-Māda, the nearest approach to the word Mārwār^e of modern times. The geographical application of the term Maru-Māda was perhaps restricted to the two states of Jaisalmer and Jodhpur, which by their sterile and dreary appearances clearly bear out the meaning of the words Maru and Mada. A Jaina work of the 12th century A.D. calls the people of Mārwār as Mārwādis, a surprisingly modern term for that age; and describes them as "wearing long locks of hair on their unshaven heads."8

9) VATSAS

They were a famous people of 'Vedic Aryandom'. the same as the Vasas of the Brāhmanical literature, who according to the Aitareya Brāhmana lived in the 'Dhruva Madhyamādik' along with the Usīnaras and Kuru-Pañcālas. Purāṇic tradition records that Vatsa obtained its name from a Kāśī prince called Vatsa, who annexed the country round Kauśāmbī and called it Vatsa. Kauśāmbī, the chief city of the Vatsa country, existed even in the time of the Satapatha Brāhmana. A different tradition attributes the foundation of the city to Kaśa or Kuśāmba, son of a Kaurava

¹ DD. p. 127.

² MM. pp. 146-47.

⁸ EI, VIII. 44, line 11

⁴ EI. IX. 278.

⁵ EI. IX. 278.

⁶ The inscriptional form Mārava in all probability stood for Mārwār (DD. p. 120). A Jaina work of the 12th century A.D. refers to Mārvāḍdeśa (IA. IV. 112).

⁷ IG XIV. 179.

⁸ IA IV. 76-77.

⁹ Law, op cit p 117.

¹⁰ viii. 14.

¹¹ ATHT, pp 269-70.

¹² KSSR, I, p. 5, 51

¹⁸ Ved. Ind., I 198.

prince called Vasu, the conqueror of Cedi.¹ The Kaurava origin of the kings of Kausambī is also referred to in other texts.² But the Lord of Vatsa of the Kathā-S-Sāgara, who is almost the central figure in the ocean of stories is stated to have sprung from the Pāṇḍava family.⁸

The Vatsa country was the Vatsabhūmi of the Mahābhārata,⁴ Vamsa Mahājanapada of the Anguttara Nikāya, Vacchha of the Jaina Bhagavatī Sūtra,⁵ and Vattavan of Tamil texts.⁶ It embraced the whole of the triangular wedge of land, enclosed by the converging channels of the Ganges and the Jumna i.e. the modern Allahabad, including also a considerable portion of the trans-Jumna tract on the south, and the trans-Gangetic tract on the north. The capital city Kauśāmbī,⁷ is regarded as identical with the village Kosam⁶ on the left bank of the Yamunā, about 30 miles to the south-west of Allahabad.⁹

Kauśāmbī was one of the most sacred cities of ancient India to both Hindus and Buddhists.¹⁰ In the Abhidhānappaddīpikā it is included in the list of twenty ancient cities of India;¹¹ and down to the time of Buddha's death it was considered as one of the six great cities of India.¹² To Hiuen Tsang, Kiao-shangmi or Kauśāmbī was the name of a kingdom¹⁸ about 6000 li in circuit;

¹ AIHT, p 118 and 294

² PHAI, p 20 and 38

* KSSR, I, p 51, 101

4 nj 253. 10.

⁵ Supra p. 81, fn I.

- 6 IA XXII. 148
- 7 IA XX 375 Vathha (Chehha) Kosambī.
- 8 It is situated in 25° 20' N. and 81° 24' E. An inscription mentions the name Kosamv (b) i Grāman (El I. 41, vs. 15).
- ⁹ But if the distance as recorded by Hiuen Tsang is correct the famous Buddhist town must be looked for at some distance of about 90 miles from Allahabad in a direction between south and west, somewhere in the valley of the Tons river (YC, I, pp. 366-67) Daya Ram Sahni in a paper on 'Kauśambhi' (JRAS. 1927. p 689 ff.) identifies the famous city with modern Kosam. He thus rejects Smith's view and accepts Cunningham's theory
 - 10 For ancient Kausambī see Memoirs of the Arch. Surv of India, No. 60.
- 11 These ancient cities were:—1) Bārāṇasi 2) Sāvatthī 3) Vesālī 4) Mithilā 5) Ālavi 6) Kosambhi 7) Ujjenī 8) Takkasilā 9) Champā 10) Sāgala 11) Sumsumāragira 12) Rājagaha 13) Kapilavatthu 14) Sāketa 15) Indapaṭṭa 16) Ukkaṭṭha 17) Pātaliputtaka 18) Jettuttara 19) Samkassa 20) Kusinārā (Abhidhānappadēpikā of Moggallan Thera, ed. by Munī Jina Vijaya, Guzarat Purātatva Mandir, Ahmedabad, p. 32).
- 12 The cities were:—Rājagrha, Śrāvastı, Sāketa, Kaulambi, Kāli, Champā (Mahāparinibbāna Sutta, SBE, xi. 99).
 - 18 BH. p. 91.

which he reached proceeding south-west from Prayag after a journey of about 500 li (about 100 miles).1 Mention of Kosamvapattalā in a Grant of Jayachandra of Kanauj,2 and of Kauśāmbamandala in Karra inscription of Yasahpālas tends to indicate that the country west-north-west of Allahabad between the Ganges and Jumna rivers formed a part of the mediaeval Kauśāmbī kingdom;4 which in all probability was equivalent to the ancient territory of the Vatsas. Hemacandra also considered the two terms synonymous: Kauśāmbī Vatsapattanam. Accordingly, Hiuen Tsang's description of Kausambī refers to the ancient Vatsa country. The land, he says, was famous for its productiveness.6 Early Buddhist writers similarly refer to the prosperity of the Vamsa country which was very rich and full of gems and diamonds.7 Kautilya records that the Vatsa country produced the finest cotton fabrics.8 But the people, according to the Chinese traveller, also pursued learning. They were very earnest in their religious life, and were intensely pious.

10. GHOSAS

It is more a professional than an ethnographical expression. The territorial name of the Ghoşa country may take such forms as Ghoṣa-vāsa or Gopa-vāsa, or even Go-kula, the famous 'pastoral district on the Yamunā near Mathura.' A passage of the Mahā-bhārata alludes to such names¹o: Palārghoṣām Samṛddhāmśca bahu gokula sankulān. The Harivamśa¹¹ refers to the colony of cowherds at Bṛndāvan near Mathura, which developed into a flourishing Janapada of the Ghoṣas, and in fact the Ghoṣa community of Bṛndāvan is famous in ancient Indian mythology and tradition.¹²

¹ YC, I, p 865.

² [A. XVIII 18 It is also mentioned in the Goharwa plates of Karnadeva (El. XI. 141).

⁸ EI. XI. 141.

Fig. The Tirodi plates of Pravarasena (EI. XXII. 168) refer to a Kosamba-khānda of the Balaghat district of the Central Provinces.

⁵ Abh.dhān, p. 389; see also TKS, p. 32. ⁶ BR, I, p. 235.

⁷ Anguttara Nikaya, IV, pp. 252, 256, 260 ⁸ AS, p. 94.

Dowson, Classical Dictionary, 1879, p. 115.

¹⁰ xii. 325, 20. 11 ii. chs. 7, 8 and 9.

¹² The name Ghoşa is essentially connected with any cowman or milk-seller although he may belong to a different tribe. Thus an Ahīr of Delhi is also known as Ghosi and usually claims descent from Nandji, the adopted father of Kṛṣṇa (Kanhyāji). Glossary, II, p. 7.

11. YAMUNAS

Pargiter suggests that this people lived in that portion of the Himalayan region, where the river Yamunā has its sources. In the *Bhāgavata Purāṇa*² the Yāmuna country is placed between Sūrasena and Brahmāvarta.

12. SĀRASVATAS

They are the Sārasvatā ganāh of the Mahābhārata, and settled near the famous river of that name which lost itself in the sands: "Gacchatyantarhitā yatra Meruprsthe Sarasvatī."

That the river in question entered the earth, and got dried up is made even more clear in another passage:

Dvāram Nisādarāstrasya yeşām dvesāt Sarasvatī

Prthivim vira mā Niṣāda-hi mām viduh.

Consequently the river earned the name of Vinaiana; and another passage alluding to it runs thus:

Tato Vinasanam rajan jagamathahalayudhah

Südrābhīrān prati dvesād yatranastā Sarasvatī.

The river is mentioned in the Rgveda as a flowing river. It rises in the hills of Sirmur in the Himalayan range, and then, falls into the plains of Ambala. Near Pehoa, Sarsūtis is joined by the Mārkandā, and the united stream bearing still the name of Sarasvatī (Sarsūti) ultimately joins the Ghaggar at a place called Ber. This united stream of the Sarasvatī and Ghaggar is believed to have been the ancient Sarasvatī, which flows past Sirsa the town of the subdivision of the same name. in Hissar district, Punjab. The old town of Sirsa, also called Sarsūti, still stands on the north side of a dry bed of the Ghaggar. So the region where the river Sarasvatī disappeared in the sands of the desert, and earned the name Vinasana, is the same as the area round Sirsa. This town is also regarded as identical with the Sarasvatī

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1 MP, pp 377-78. Cf Mbh, xiii 68 3: Yamunasya gireradhah
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² i. 10. 31.

⁵ Mbh (B), v. 57. 23.

⁴ Mbh., iii 82 111.

⁵ Tbid. iii. 130 8-4

⁶ Ibid. ix 37. 1.

⁷ In the Vedic period it was a large river and flowed into the sea (Max Muller's Rgveda Samhitā, p 46). See also ABORI. XXIX. 125, fn.

⁸ Alberuni informs us that Sarasvatī was the same as Sarsūti and that it took its rise from the pond Visnupada, near the mountain Nishada (AI, II 142).

⁹ Punjab Gazetteer, Ambala Dt., ch. 1.

¹⁰ Also called Pavani. DD, p. 155

¹¹ JRAS, 1898, p 51.

¹² Situated in 29° 32' N and 75° 2' E

¹⁸ IG. XXIII. 45.

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁶ JRAS. 1895, p. 51.

nagara of the Mahābhārata,1—presumably the chief city of the Sārasvatas of our list.2

From the texts cited above, it is evident that the Sirsa country was the gate of Niṣāda-rāṣtra,⁸ and the home as well, of other peoples like the Sūdras and Abhīras. According to Bühler Niṣāda corresponds to Hissar and Bhatnir.⁴ But the Niṣādas are also connected with the Pāripātra or Pāriyātra Mountain,⁵ which according to tradition was one of the Kulaparvatas.⁶. The mountain is mentioned as Pārichāla in the Nasik Praśasti of Gautamīputra Ṣātakarṇi,⁷ and is regarded as identical with the western portion of the Vindhya mountain, west of Bhopal, including also the southern spurs of the Aravalli range.⁸ The Niṣādas, therefore, lived in the Western Vindhyas, which agrees well with the reference that is made of Niṣāda in the Junagad Rock Inscription of Rudradāman⁹. Dr. B. C. Law thinks that the Niśāda kingdom of the Rāmāyaṇa had its capital at Ṣrngaverapura.¹⁰

The Niṣādas are copiously referred to in the whole range of Sanskrit literature. As an aboriginal tribe they must have lived in the different parts of India. From the Manu-samhitā¹¹ we learn that a Niṣāda was the offspring of a Brahman father and a Śūdra mother¹¹; and that his profession was usually that of a fisherman.¹² The Kathā-S-Sāgara similarly records that they were fishermen, and

¹ DD, p. 181.

² Sārasvata-mandala of the Grants of the Anhilvād Chalukyas (I.A. VI. 191. line 7) refers to the region round the river of that name in Gujarat

³ Alberuni knows of the contiguity of Mount Nisada to the source of the Sarasvati (AI, II, 142).

⁴ IA. VII. 263. The Kathā-S-Sāgara refers to a Niṣāda country of the north situated in the bosom of the Himalayas (II, p. 368 & 415) and also to an island of the name of Utsthala where dwelt a king of the Niṣadas (I, p. 206).

⁵ Mbh., xii. 135. 3-5.

⁶ These mountains are:—Mahendro Malayah Sahyah Suktiman Itksa parvatah Vindhyasca Pāripātrasca Saptaivātra Kulācalāh (Mbh., vi. 9. 11; Mārk, 57, 10). In the Bārhaspatya Arthasāstr,a the sūtra referring to the Kulācalas runs thus:—
Tatrāpi Raivataka Vindhyasahyakumāramalaya Śrīparvata Pāriyātrāh saptakulācalāh (F. W Thomas, op. cit. p. 20, Sūtra No. 81).

⁷ EI. VIII. 61.

⁸ MP, p. 286. For Pariyatras, see B. C. Law in IC. 111 783-36.

The inscription furnishes a list of place names over which his power may have extended. They are:—Purvāpar-Ākar-Āvanti, Anupanivṛt, Ānartta, Surāṣṭra, Śvabhra, Maru. Kaccha, Sindhu-Sauvīra-Kukura, Aparānta, Niṣāda (EI. VIII. 44, line 11).

¹¹ x. 8.

sons of female slaves.¹ The Mahābhārata puts them in bad company², and in the Rāmāyana they are clearly stated as aborigines living outside the pale of Aryan culture.³

The Sūdras and Abhīras who also lived in the Vinasana region, are mentioned as a northern people in the Bhīsma Parva list of the Mahābhārata. The two tribes are very often coupled together, and the Great Epic expressly states that they lived on the banks of the river Sarasvatī and were fishermen by profession:—

Šūdrābhīragaņāścaiva ye cāśritya Sarasvatīm

Vartayanti ca ye Matsyairye ca parvatavāsinah.

The Sūdras mentioned along with the Abhīras in the Mahā-bhāṣya of Patañjali⁷ (2nd century B.C.) are the same as the Sodrai of the Greeks, not the Oxydrakoi,⁸ who are mentioned along with the Malloi⁹. The city of Uch (38 miles to the southeast of Bahawalpur town, Punjab) on the south bank of the Sutlej opposite its confluence with the Chenab, which is full of ancient ruins is believed to have formed a part of the Sūdra country.¹⁰

In the context of the references to the name in the Mahābhārata and the Mahābhāṣya, the Ābhīras are also to be assigned to the land near Vinaśana which presumably was their earliest settlement in India. It is suggested that Abiravan between Herat and Kandahar was the original home of the Ābhīras,¹¹ and that they entered India shortly 'before or along with the Sakas'.¹² This seems to agree with the trend of their early settlements in the direction of the south from the north. In the first and second centuries A.D., they are located in the country between the lower Sindhu valley and Kathiawar, as is indicated in the 'Periplus' and in the Geography of Ptolemy¹³. Throughout the third century A.D. the Ābhīras were exercising ruling power in northern Konkan and Mahārāṣṭra.¹⁴ They continued to rule as late as the middle of the fourth century when

¹ KSSR, I, p 241 In the *Harwamsu* the Nıṣādas are represented as collecting precious gens and jewels found in river beds* (HV, i. 38-32).

² ii 317: Nigādān Puruṣādāmisca Kornaprāvaranāpi.

The story of the Nishāda king Guha Mbh., vi. 9.67.

⁵ Mbh (b)., iii. 159.851 :- Śūrāstathābhīrā; vii. 18. 7 : Śūrābhīrāh.

⁶ Mbh, ii. 3210

⁷ I. 2. 8

⁸ MI, p. 351.

⁹ Ibid. 287.

¹⁰ MI, p. 354.

¹¹ D C Sircar in IHQ XXI 302, fn 17.

¹² The Age of Imperial Unity, p 221. 13 MT, p. 186 and 140.

¹⁴ NHIP, VI. 51. Vātsyāyana (VKS, p. 289, 808) refers to the scraglio of the Abhīra kings.

they came into conflict with the Kadamba king Mayūraśarman¹ whose Chandravaḷḷi inscription² refers to the association of the Abhīras and the Traikūṭakas in northern Konkan. This supports the contention of Pandit Indraji that the Traikūṭakas who lived in the Poona district were a branch of the Abhīras³ though, as the inscription indicates, they had two separate kingdoms.

Other references to the people point to the existence of Abhīra settlements in central India and Khandash. The Vāyu Purāna groups the Abhīras with the Vidarbhas and Pulindas⁴, which can be constrasted with the Abhīra tribe subdued by the Gupta emperor. The undoubted traces of Abhīra settlement in Ahirwar between Bhilsa and Jhansi in central India,⁵ can also be noted in this connection.

Epigraphic evidence indicates the existence of an Abhīra kingdom in the 14th century⁶ in Khandesh. This principality was probably referred to by Jaya Simha Sūri (A.D. 1356) in his Kumūra-pāla-carita: after capturing the ruler of Avanti-deśa, the Chalukya king crossed the river Revā, and entering the Abhīra-visaya compelled the lord of Prakāśa-nagarī to become his servant.⁷

During this period, the Ābhīras or a branch of them also lived in Rajputana; Jaya Simha Sūri refers to an Ābhīra country coniointly with Mālava and Medapāṭa.⁸ The Jodhpur inscription of Samvat 918, records that the Ābhīra people of this area were a terror to their neighbours, because of their violent demeanour.⁹ The people also lived in Nepal:¹⁰ and subsequently, under the name Ahīr i.e. Gopas or herdsmen, they remained scattered throughout the whole of the eastern Punjab.¹¹ They also took to cultivation: in some parts of the Punjab, the Ahīras, who are all Hindus, are now almost 'exclusively agricultural'.

13. MATSYAS Supra pp. 29-32.

14. MADHYAMIKAS

The Yavana invasion of Madhyamikā is mentioned by Patañjali. The Sibi coins of the second century B.C. containing the legend 'Majhamikāya-Sibi-Janapadasa' which have been found at a village called Nāgarī¹², seven miles north of Chitor and one of the most

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<sup>1</sup> The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 222-23.
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² EI. XXIII. 48; EI. 172; SI 449.

Bomb. Gaz., I, Pt. I, pp. 57-58.
 Ch. 45. 126.
 IRAS. 1897, p. 891.
 EI. XXV. 208.

⁵ JRAS. 1897. p. 891. ⁶ EI. XXV. 8 ⁷ DHNI, II, pp. 985-986. ⁸ Ibid. p. 983.

⁹ EI. IX 279 The Abhīra robbers are also mentioned in the Skanda Purāna (v. I. 24.7).

10 DHNI, I, pp. 187-191.

ancient places in Rajputana, indicate that the Sibi settlement of Madhyamikā corresponded to the region round Nāgarī. From a *Mātaka* story we learn that Jetuttara was a city of the Sivi kingdom.¹ Jetuttara has been identified with Nāgarī,² the Sibi (Sivī) city of the Madhyamikā Janapada. Alberuni's information that Jattaraur (same as Jetuttara) was the capital of the kingdom of Maiwar,³ may contain a clue to connect the Madhyamikā country with the famous Rajput principality of Medapāṭa or Mewar. But the Sivis were a people of the north and the *Mahābhārata* groups them with the Punjab tribes. The literary references to the people being earlier than the numismatic references, it follows that a people of this name moved to Rajputana from the Punjab.

15. MATHURAKAS Supra pp. 33-34.

16. JYOTISAS

It is probable that the name starting from a professional designation⁴ became fixed as the name of a great tribe. Reference to Uttara Jyotişas whose city was Divyakaṭapura;⁵ and Prāg Jyotiṣas, the famous eastern people, suggests that there was a central tribe of the name of Jyotiṣas who might have lived somewhere in the Doab.

17. DHARMARANYA

In the Padma Purāṇa⁶, Agastya-āśrama is considered to be the same as Dharmāraṇya. There were many hermitages of this name. but the one in Garhwal⁷ may satisfy the conditions. A variant reading of the name is Umāraṇya. Umāraṇya was the same as Umāvana which is located in the district of Kumaun.⁸ Apparently, Dharmāraṇya was some hilly region of the Garhwal and Kumaun country.

18. SURASENAS Supra pp. 32-34.

19. GAURAGRIVAS

The name is based on the physical features of a people, meaning white-necked.

20. UDDEHIKAS

Numismatic evidence proves the existence of a people of this name who are otherwise unknown to ordinary Indian literature.

¹ No. 547, CJ. VI, p. 247. ² JASB, 1887, p. 74.

⁸ AII, I. 202.

⁴ Glossary, II, p. 418. There is a class of Brahmans in Kasmir known as Jyotisi (IG XV. 105).

⁶ Mbh; ii. 82. 11.

⁸ Svarga, 6. 8-7

⁷ DD, p. 1.

^{*} DD, p. 211.

Coins bearing the inscription *Udehaki*, in Brāhmī characters of the second century B.C., have come to light. The name undoubtedly refers to the Uddehikas, and Rairh, the findspot of the coins, may offer a clue to the location of this tribe. Alberuni who had a rare knowledge of the forgotten peoples of antiquity says that Uddehika is near 'Bazāna', 112 miles south-west of Kanauj. S. K. Dikshit's identification of Bazāna with Naraina, a town 70 miles SW. of Bairat, and 125 miles north of Chitor, seems to be plausible having regard to the position of Uddehika, which he locates at Bari-udai in the Gangapur tahsil of the Jaipur State: which is only 40 miles NE. of Rairh (the findspot of the coins) and about 98 miles ESE. of Naraina, the Bazāna of Alberuni.

21. PANDUS

Pāṇḍus, Pāṇḍavas and Pāṇḍyas are mere variants, and refer to the descendants of Pāṇḍu, brother of the Kuru prince Dhṛtarāṣṭra. They ruled in Indraprastha known to the Egyptian geographer Ptolemy as Indabara who recorded that the country of the Pandoouoi spread around the Bidaspes (Jhelum). 4 and also referred to other Pāṇḍava cities such as Labaka (= Lahore?) and Sagala. The Greek writers knew of a Pāṇḍava settlement on the basin of the river Chambal, 5 while Alberuni records a tradition that Kanoj became famous by the children of Pāṇḍu. 6

But the Pandian kingdom of the age of Periplus, and Pandion of Strabo and Ptolemy, refer to the famous Tamil country of the far south which is generally believed to have been a settlement of

¹ CCAI, p CXLI ² IC VII. 861-68.

³ AI, I 300 Alberuni writes that marching from Kanoj towards the southwest, for about 20 farsakh, one reaches Bazāna, the capital of Guzarat (p 202) We are informed by him that Bazāna was also called Nārāyan. But the next statement contains some discrepancy. The distance between Māhūra and Kanoj is stated to be the same as that between Kanoj and Bazāna, viz, 28 farsakh (Ibid & p 199). Bazāna is again placed 25 farsakh north of Maiwar, the capital of which was Jattaraur i.e. Nāgarī to the north of chitor. It follows that Bazāna was separated from Mewar by almost the same distance (25 farsakh) as that recorded between Bazāna and Kanoj (20 or 28 farsakh). All these point to some place in Jaipur (or Bayānā?) as the locality indicated by Bazāna. But how can it be the capital of Guzrat? General Cunningham explains this discrepancy by taking Guzerat, variantly read as Kairāt by Firishta, to be corruptions of Bairāt; and Nārdin and Narāna, other names of Bazāna the capital city, are regarded by him as only the alterations of Nārāyana, the name of a town about 12 miles to the north-east of Bairat (Elliot and Dowson, The History of India, I. p 59 fn; pp. 393-96).

⁴ MT, p. 121, 128 and 89. 5 MM, pp 150-51 fn.

⁶ AI, I. 199.

the Pāṇḍavas of Āryāvarta, as is indicated by the name Dakṣiṇa Mathurā (Madura)¹, the capital city of the Pāṇḍya kingdom of the south, and by the Greek accounts of 'Heracles' and his worshippers the Suraseni (Śūrasenas) and his daughter Pandaea to whom he gave a country.² According to Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar the Pāṇḍyas had another settlement in Ceylon.³

22. GUDAS

Very little is known about them, except that Alberuni furnishes the information that Thanesar was called Guḍa in his time. The order of narration also suggests that the people have to be located somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Pāṇḍya country (Delhi) in the Madhya-deśa. Traces of the existence of the people at one time in the Punjab perhaps survive in modern Gaur group of Brahmans, who are now 'confined almost entirely to the eastern districts of the Punjab's. The 'Ādi Gauḍa' of tradition similarly refers to the upper parts of the Ganges.

23. AŚMAKAS

Aśmakas of Pāṇini when considered along with his use of expressions like Dākṣiṇātya⁷ and Kalinga⁸, can be equated with the Assaka-Mahājanapada of the Buddhist Anguttara Nikāya, which was situated on the banks of the Godāvarī.⁹ According to the Mahāgovinda Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya, Assaka with its capital Potana, was one of the seven political divisions of India.¹⁰ Potana, the Pāli form of Sanskrit Pratiṣṭhāna is also mentioned as Potalī¹¹, the same as Paudanya of the Mahābhārata.¹² It has been regarded as identical with modern Paithan in Aurangabad district of Hyderabad, on the north bank of the Godāvarī. Natives of Paithan, i.e. Paithānikas may have been referred to as Petenikas in Asoka's

¹ K. P. Mitra in IHQ. XV. 464-70. ³ CL, p. 12.

² CH. I. 108; CL, pp. 9-11; PHAI, p. 541.

⁴ AI, I. 300; JRAS, 1905, pp. 163-64. ⁵ Glossary, II, p. 281.

⁶ See Martin, Eastern India, Vol. I, p. 154. The division of the Brahmans into five classes known as *Paūca Gaudas* (Vallāla-caritam, Bibliotheca Indica, 1904, p. 2, vs. 18) is well-known. It has been shown that Gauda Brahmans were scattered over different parts of India.

⁷ iv. 2.98. 8 iv. 1.170.

⁹ Sutta Nipāta, vs. 976-977; SBE, X. 184.

¹⁰ The seven kingdoms with their capitals are:—Kalinga-Dantapura; Assaka-Potana; Avanti-Māhissatī; Sovīra-Roruka; Videha-Mithilā; Anga-Campā; Kāsī-Bārāṇasī (DN., H. p. 235; SBB, HI, p. 270).

¹¹ Jataka, No. 310, CJ. HI. p. 2.

¹² PHAI, p. 121.

edict.¹ Pratisthana is frequently mentioned in the Kathā-S-Sāgara as a city of the Deccan situated on the bank of the Godāvarī.². The name occurs in the Skanda Purāna as Paithīnasīpurī.³

Asmaka country lay to the north of Godavari and perhaps embraced the modern Nasik and Aurangabad districts; and according to the commentator Bhattasvāmin, Aśmaka was the same as Mahārāṣṭra.4 But the Aśmakas were very closely related to the Mūlakas who had also Patitthāna (Sans. Pratisthāna) or Paithan as their capital.⁵ The two names are often treated in conjunction with each other. In the Nasik record of queen Gautamī Balaśrī,6 mention is made of Asaka (Aśmaka or Aśvaka) immediately before Mūlaka. Purāņic traditions attribute the foundation of the two kingdoms to Ikṣvāku chiefs.7 The geographical location of these two peoples presents certain difficulty, for they shared the same capital. The passage of the Sutta Nipāta (v. 977) seems to show that the Assaka (Aśmaka) territory on the Godavarī in Dakkiņāpatha lay along that river to its south; because, the Brahman priest reached Patithana of the Mulaka country proceeding northwards from Assaka (Aśmaka). In early Pāli literature, as Dr. Bhandarkar points out, the two have been distinguished⁸; yet the formation of the Asmaka Mahājanapada which extended as far as the Narmada⁹ and abutted on Avanti¹⁰, was possible by the incorporation of the little Mülaka State. Even so, Mülaka maintained its separate existence at least in the time of Gautamiputra, the famous Satavāhana king (c. 106-130 A.D.). S. Levi writes that Mūlaka, placed between Assaka (Paithan) and Suratha, designated the portion of the coast to the north of Bombay.¹¹

But a people called Aśmaka or Aśvaka also occurs in our list

¹ CH. I. 608, For other views see TAI, pp. 581-82.

² KSSR, II, p. 32-33, I, p. 232. ⁸ ii. 7. 14. 34.

⁴ DD, p. 13.

⁵ Sutta Nipāta, vs. 977 and 1010-11. Mūlaka is the correct reading and not Alaka as adopted by V. Fausboli (CL. p. 4, fn. 3).

⁶ El. VIII. 61.

⁷ PHAI, p. 122 Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar connects Pratisthana (Paithan) of the Godavari with the city of this name on the confluence of the Ganges and the Jumna, which was the capital of the Aila Pururavas and concludes that the Godavari Paithan was a colony of the Aila tribe (CL, pp. 15-16).

⁸ CL, pp. 53-54, also TAI, pp. 184-185.

O DD, p. 13.

¹⁰ PHAI, pp. 121-22. But Dr. B. C. Law accepts the theory of Rhys Davids that the collocation of names in the Buddhist list of *Mahājanapadas* indicates that Aśmaka was situated on the north-west of Avanti. Aśmaka of the Godāvarī, was accordingly a later colony (TAI, p. 181).

¹¹ JAHRS. IX. 8-10.

of North-Western tribes (No. 6). In the Padma Purana, we read of 'Aśmakāh Sottarāścaiva.1 The Aśmakas are similarly mentioned in the Mahabharata as a northern tribe,2 although the reading varies with Aśvaka in some recensions of the Mahābhārata.3 M. de St.-Martin suggests that the name Asvaka which occurs in the Mahābhārata as a people of the north-west was derived from Aśva 'a horse' signifying merely the 'cavalier' and indicating that the country was renowned for its breed of horses. In popular dialect, Aśvaka may be changed into Assaka, whence the name Assakani or Assakenoi of the Greek historians was obtained. Now, if Asmaka means 'stony region', it cannot be equated with Assakenoi or Aśvaka, the land of horses. But it has been seen that Asmaka of Panini refers to Assaka of the Buddhist texts, the southern realm. Assaka again, which was the popular form of Aśvaka, has been regarded as the basis of the Greek word Assakenoi. The Asmakas of the NW. division of our text, and Aśvakas of the Mahābhārata stated to be a people of the same region, are perhaps variants of the same name,⁵ and in all probability refer to the Assakenians, for unless we regard the two names as identical, we will have to accept the untenable position that there were two tribes namely the Aśvakas and Aśmakas who lived in the North-West. But this by no means makes it clear beyond doubt that the northern Aśvaka country (derived from Aśva, horse), variantly known also as Aśmaka, was a settlement of the very same people who lived in the southern Asmaka country (stony region) on the Godavari. The equation, though plausible, lacks cogent evidence for its support.

It is further suggested that the Greek name Assakenoi, is the basis of the name Avghān or Afghāns, which is only a contracted form of Assakān. But Aśmaka or the Aśvaka, being the same as the Assakenians, may refer to a distinct tribal group. The Greek writers locate the country of Assakenoi in the Swat valley. Arrian states that Alexander with a view to attacking the Assakenians passed through the country of the Gouraians (Gouraioi), where 'he had to cross the Gouraios, the river named after that country's. The river Gouraios of Arrian, was the river Panjkhora or the Landai,

¹ Svarga, 3.40.

² TAI, p. 180.

See also DKDI, p. 77, for Aśmaka of the Padma Purāņa and Aśvaka of the Mahābhārata.
4 MI, p. 383.

Mark Collins says that Aśmaka and Aśvaka may be the result of the divergent Sanskritization of the Prākrt Assaka (GDRD, p. 7). Prof. Rhys Davids is also of opinion that Aśmakā and Aśvakā would be Assakā both in the local vernacular and in Pāli (Buddhist India, p. 28).

6 MI, p. 66; MT, p. 111.

formed by the junction of the rivers Panjkhora and Swat,1 to the west of which lived the Gourains. This refers to the wooded hills of Bajaur; and the rough and rocky tract of Mohmand between the rivers Landai and Kunar (Kampanā, Malantos and Euaspala) bounded by the Kabul river on the south, as the country of the Gauras. The country and the river may owe their names to the Ghorī, a great and wide spread tribe, branches of which are still to be found to the west of Landai and on both sides of the Kabul river². We have in our list of North-Western tribes a people (No. 14) called Guruhas. The Greek name (Gouraians) appears to be a close rendering of the Sanskrit name, which raises a strong presumption that the Guruhas were an old people, and were living in the Kabul valley as early as the time of the Greek invasion.

Alexander crossed the river Gouraios, entered the country of the Assakenoi, and laid siege to Massaga.3 Sir Thomas Holdich is of opinion, that as no mention is made of Alexander's passage of the Suastos (Swat River) he must have 'crossed the Panikora below its junction with the Swat'4 Consequently, the invader crossed the Landai and landed in the country lying to the south of the Swat, the country of the Assakenians. Massaga, which according to Strabo, was the capital⁵ has been identified with Massanagar⁶ (Skt. Masakavati) 'not very far to the north of the Malkand Pass'. Holdich connects the city with a place called Matkanai close to the Malakand Pass, and lying on the south bank of the Swat.7 but Arrian seems to know Peukelaitis as a city of the Assakenoi.8 The Assakenoi (=Aśmaka) country was thus encompassed by the Swat on the north, the Landai on the west and the Kabul on the south.

The Assakenians were great fighters: Greek writers admit that they offered a stubborn resistance to Alexander, and once Alexander was even obliged 'to draw off his forces'.9

PANCĀLAS Supra p. 35.

25. SAKETAS

They are the people of Saketa, a place mentioned by Patanjali as being besieged by the Yavanas.¹⁰ It was the Soked of Tibetan

¹ MM, p 198 fn; MI, p. 66, fn. † ⁸ MM, p. 184; MI, p. 66. 4 Gates of India, p. 104.

² MI, p. 66. fn. 1; MT, p. 111. ⁵ MA, p. 33, and fn. 2.

⁶ MI, pp 334-35. For other views etc., see EHI, p. 57, fn. 1. 7 Gates of India, p. 105 and map facing p. 94. 8 MM, p. 164.

¹⁰ Mahabhāsya on Pāṇini, iiii. 2. 111. ⁹ MI, pp. 66-67.

and Chinese works¹, a very celebrated city of the Buddhist world. In the time of Lord Buddha it was considered as one of the six great cities of India, and according to the Abhidhānappadīpikā it was one of the twenty ancient cities. Rhys Davids says, "Sāketa is often supposed to be the same as Ayodhyā (Oudh) but both cities are mentioned as existing in the Buddha's time. They were possibly adjoining like London and Westminster". If Sāketa is celebrated in Buddhist canonical works, Ayodhyā is equally celebrated in the Rāmāyama. In other works, Sāketa is mentioned in preference to Ayodhyā. But Yaśodhara in his Commentary writes: Sāketā Āyodhiyakāh. Hemachandra also considers Sāketa, Ayodhyā and Kosala as synonynous terms: Sāketain Kosalā'yodhyā. In the Purāṇas we read:—

Anu-Gangā Prayāgamca Sāketam Magadhāmstathā Etān Janapadān sarvān bhoksyante Guptavamsajāh⁵

In the 4th century A.D. Sāketa, territorially speaking represented the ancient Kośala-Mahājanapada, and was equivalent to modern Oudh, an 'anu-gaṅgā' Janapada, of which the river Ganges forms even now its southern boundary, and greater part of its southwestern boundary. The name Oudh is, however, a corruption of ancient Ayodhyā, which stood on the site of the modern Ajudhyā near Faizabad.⁶

26. KANKAS

The hairy horned Kankas, grouped with the Sakas, Tuṣāras and a host of other such mountainous people, are represented in the Great Epic⁷ as bringing presents to the Pāṇdavas of Paipīlika gold. The highlands of Tibet have always been notorious for the wandering of bands of wild tribes, and the reference to ant-collected gold makes it highly probable that the people came from across the Tibetan borderland to the valley of the Ganges.⁸

27. KURUS Supra p. 35-36.

28. KÄLAKOTIS

Kālakūta is mentioned in the aphorisms of Pāņini.9 A

¹ PHAI, p. 395, ² Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 39.

³ VKS, p. 411 Cf also Raghuvamśa, v 31. 4 Abhidhāna, p 389.

⁵ Pargiter, Dynasties of the Kali age, p. 53.

⁶ For other views on the site of ancient Ayodhyā, see V Smith in JRAS. 1897. p 860, who accepts Ferguesson's theory that the site must be looked for at or near Lucknow. Major Vost (JRAS. 1905, p'. 487) would locate Sāketa at a village. 24 miles north-west of Allahabad.

8 See infra Khasas.

⁷ Mbh (B)., ii. 49. 25.

⁹ IHQ. II. 759.

country called Kālakūṭa was conquered by Arjuna.¹ In another passage² it is stated that proceeding from Kuru-deśa, and leaving Kuru-Jāṅgala, one reached the Kālakūṭa country; the indications are that it was somewhere in the Upper Gangetic Doab. As Kālakūṭa means black fort, it is tempting to connect it with the Kālī Nadī or 'black river'. In its upper course the river flows through the districts of Muzaffarnagar, Meerat, Bulandshahr, Aligarh and ultimately joins the Ganges not far above Kanauj. The district of Muzaffarnagar is bounded on the east by the Ganges, and on the south by Meerut. If Kālakūta was near the Kuru country, the town of Muzaffarnagar, which 'is well situated on high land above the Kālī Nadī's might have stood for a fort on the black river in ancient times. Information about the position of Kālkūṭa is obtained in another passage which runs thus:—

Ahicchatram Kālakūtam Gangākūlanca Bhārata Bāranam Bāṭadhānanca Yāmūnaiśceva parvatah Esa dešah suvistīrnah prabhūta dhana dhānyavān.

Here Kālakūta is placed near Ahicchatra and the Ganges, and the locality suggestel above agrees well with the description in the Sloka. Other places in the neighbourhood were Bāraṇa and Bātadhāṇa. Bāraṇa or Baran was the old name of the town of Bulandshahr, which is also situated like Muzaffarnagar near the Kālī Nadī in the Doab or alluvial plain between the Ganges and Jumna in the Meerut Division. The other name Bātadhāna is obviously the country of the Vātadhāna is obviously the country of the Vātadhāna is obviously the country of the Vātadhānas, who appear along with the Saradhānas as a people of the North (Nos. 23 & 24) in our list. In another passage of the Mahābhārata, the Vātadhāna country is grouped with Madhvamikā and Puskara, while in the Bhīsma Prava list the Vātadhānas are combined with the Ābhīras and Bālhīkas. Pargiter suggests that the people lived on the east side of the Sutlej.

In the passage cited above Vātadhāna is placed between Bulandshahr (Bāraṇ) and the Jumna hills, which accords with the position of the country of the Saradhānas, their associates, who

¹ Mbh., ii 26.

² Ibid. ii. 20. 26.

³ IG. XVIII. 93.

⁴ Mbh, v. 19. 30.

⁵ IG. IX. 57; EI. XXVI. 94. The city was also called Unchanagar ('high town') and referred to as Ucenagara in an inscription (EI. I. 381).

ii. 32 8. Vāṭadhāna of this passage is sought to be identified with Bhādāna, supposed to be the Pkt form of the name (Vāṭadhāna) from which the Bazāna of Alberuni was taken (IC. VII. 362-63). See Uddehikas, supra p. 47.

⁷ MP, p. 312.

may have occupied the Sardhan tahsil of the Meerut District. Curiously enough, the Ain-i-Akbari refers to Sardhanah and Badhinah (=Vāṭadhāna) as two parganahs of the Sarkār of Saharanpur in the Subah of Delhi.¹

29. KUKURAS

The name according to Pargiter originated from Kukura, a son of Andhaka, who belonged to the Sātvata sub-line of the Yādavas². Epic tradition represents the name Kukura as a vamsa like Bhoja, Vṛṣṇi, Yadu and Andhaka, etc.³ but other passages refer to the Kukura country⁴ as in the Bhāṣma Parva list. Kauṭilya even knows a corporation of the Kukuras like that of the Pañcúlas,⁵ and in the Harivamśa they are described as an extraordinarily powerful people.⁶ The name occurs even in the work of the lexicographer Puruṣottamadeva.⊓

Two lists of country names as furnished by two well-known epigraphs of the first part of second century A.D., in which Kukura is mentioned, give us an idea about the situation of the Kukura country. In one, the order of narration is: Suratha, Kukura, Aparānta; while in another, it is Sindhu-Sauvīra, Kukura and Aparānta. In each case Kukura is linked with Aparānta.

Dr. Bhagavanlal Indraji thinks that Aparāntikā refers to Ariake, which is the Greek name of the Western Coast of India; for, Aparāntikā in Prākrit may have become Abarātikā or Avarāikā, which may have yielded to Ariake. The Buddhist form of the name, as found in an inscription, is 'Avaranta' which is a close rendering of Sanskrit Aparānta (ka). The original application of the name was made in its most extended sense; for, Purānic accounts have a large measure of agreement, in including almost all the countries of the west sea-board within Aparānta, which presumably extended from the Great Rann of Cutch up to Sopārā to the north of Bombay, stretching inland as far as Mount Abu in the north and Nasik in the south. Kālidāsa also used Aparānta in its widest signification, in connection with the exploits of Raghu as referring to the western coast of India extending from Malabar to Sind. 14 Dr.

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1 AIA, II, p. 105.
2 AIHT, pp. 104-5., HV, i. 87. 16 ff.
3 Mbh (B)., ii. 48. 16; iii. 154. 82; v. 28. 11.
4 Ibid. vi 51. 7.
5 AS, p. 407.
10 IA. VII. 259.
12 Cf. Aśoka's RE. V; CII. I. 10, fn. 8.
Vā., 45. 129 f;, Mat., 114. 50-51; Mārk., 57. 49 ff.
iv. 51-58: Aparānta Mahī.
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R. G. Bhandarkar was the first to identify Aparanta with the western coast below the Sahyadri.1 Dr. Bhagavaniai Indraji on the authority of a passage in the Māhabhārata shows that even Prabhāsa in Kathiawar was included in Aparanta, and that it corresponded to Konkan.2 He further observes, on the basis of the Mallinath's Commentary on Raghuvamśa (IV. 53), that Śūrparaka or Sopara was the capital of Aparanta to which Dr. Burgess also agrees.3 Fleet includes Konkan, Kathiawad, Cutch and even Sind in Aparanta.4 But Aparanta had a restricted sense as well as is clear in the records referred to. It is even treated as a Visaya in one inscription, where it is stated that it was near the sea: Sāgara-taṭē Dvā (da) śagrāmyā Avaranta-Vişaīyā, This restricted sense of the geographical application of Aparanta is also implied in the Kāmasūtra of Vātsyāyana (3rd century A.D.), where the people of Aparanta are mentioned several times. In one group of Sūtras they occur in the order: Andhras, Vatsagulmas, Vidarbhas, Aparantas and lastly the Saurāstrakas. In another Sūtra they are grouped with the Lātas? but distinguished from Sindhu. From the Jayamangalā Commentary we learn that Lata was to the west of Apara Malava, and that Aparanta was a country on the western sea-coast 8 Hence, distinguished from Sindhu, Saurāstra and Lata, Aparanta could have been equivalent only to a portion of the western sea-coast of India round about Bombay corresponding to Konkan, the chief city of which was modern Supara, near Bassein But Aparanta of the Junagadh record (c. 150 AD.), had a different application representing a portion of Upper Sindh with portions of North Rajputana as the collocation of the names in the list suggests The evidence offered by the Aparanta coins also points to the location of the country in that region 10 The following equivalents of the country names of the Junagadh record would thus satisfy the conditions generally: Maru

¹ Tians Second Int Congress of Orients (1874), p 313

² IA VII 259 See also p 263 for the Views of Dr Buhler who is in agreement with this theory ' ⁵ EI XIV 150 ⁶ VKS, p 300

⁸ Ibid 259, IA 1901, p 387 JBRAS XV 274 7 Ibid 37h

⁴ IA XXII 173, JRAS 1910 p 427 8 Ibid 9 CH. I 603

¹⁰ The provenance of the coms of the Aparana country would however, show that the Northern Sindh with parts of Western Rajputana would suit the geograph cal position of Aparanta best (AR XIV 137) Allan points out that some coms of the Mathura series contain the legend 'Maharajasa Apalātasa' He is of opinion that Apalata, which equates with Aparanta is not a territorial designation, but refers to 'a ruler of the dynasty of Mathura' having the name of Aparanta (CCAI, p LXXXI-II).

(Jodhpur), Kaccha (Cutch), Sindhu-Sauvīra (Sindh), Kukura (West Rajputana), Aparānta (Upper Sind and the adjoining regions to the north of Rajputana), Niṣāda (Hissar District).

30. PÁRIYÁTRANAGA Supra p. 44.

31. AUDUMBARAS

They claim to be descended from Viśvāmitra, the rsi of the third book of the Rgveda, and are placed near the people of Jalandhara in the Ganapātha on Pāṇini,5 a location which is supported by numismatic evidence. Coins and inscriptions bear out that the mountanious country to the north of the Punjab, was occupied by many hill tribes and races one of which was the Udumbaras or Audambaras,6 whose chief city was Pathankot7 in the Gurudaspur district, Punjab.8 The provenance of the Udumbara coins assigned to the first century B.C.9 suggests that the eastern portion of the modern districts of Kangra, Gurudaspur and Hoshiarpur, roughly speaking the valley of the Beas, or even the wider region between the Upper Sutlei and the Ravi, corresponded to the ancient Audumbara country. 10 The character of the tribal organisation, whether it was a janapada or a gana is not made clear in the coin legends, one of which runs thus: Mahādevasa raña Sivadasasa Odumbarisa. The assumption of the title of Rana, which is ascribed to Greek influence, may not mean anything more than mere leadership of this tribe. The additional word 'mahādevasa', it is suggested, was not a regal title of the Audumbara leader, but reflected a conception of sovereignty according to which the ruler considered himself as a mere agent of the great God, who has been entrusted with the sovereignty of the kingdom.11

But the Odomboerae of Pliny¹² are certainly not the people mentioned in the coins. The country so named lay in Kachh. The evidence of some inscriptions proves the existence of other countries bearing such names.¹⁸

¹ See supra pp 89-40.

² See supra p. 55.

³ DD, p. 106. Dr RoyChaudhury places it between Sind and the Pāriyātra Mt (PHAI, p. 425).

⁵ IV, 2. 5. 3.

⁴ MP, p. 855. 6 CH. I. 529.

⁷ The name is also written as Paithan, which is a corruption of Pratisthana It is situated in 32° 16′ N. and 75° 40′ E. It was the Patanaprastha of Patanijali perhaps derived from Pattana. See IC VI. 185.

⁸ Rapson, Ancient India, p 155.

⁹ CCAI, p. LXXXIV.

12 MM, p. 149.

18 A Copper-plate of Bhojedeva (V.S. 898=886 A.D.) refers to the Udumbs—

32. KAPISTHALAS

The reference to the Kurus in the information underlying the next entry (No. 33) offers a clue to the identification of the people. If the name is a variant of Kapiṣṭhala, then it is easily the Kavītal of Alberuni,¹ that is, the modern Kaithal, 38 miles west of Karnal town. To the west of Kaithal, on the east bank of the Beas, lies the modern state of Kapurthala which bears a suspicious likeness to the name Kāpiṣṭhala. Pliny's Kambistholi, which is connected with the upper course of the Hydraotes,² reprēsents, according to Schwanbeck, the Sanskrit Kāpisthala.³

33. GAJAHVAYAS

A Jaina *Upānga* of great antiquity refers to the Kurus and Pañcālas as *Āriyas* of the same class and mentions Gayapuram as being the city of the former: *Gayapuram cha Kuru*.⁴ Gayapuram is obviously the Jaina form of Gajapura, i.e. the city of the Gajāhvayas, a people who are considered identical with the people of Hastināpura by Hemacandra: *Atha Gajāhvayam syāt Hāstinapuram*.⁵

34. KULYAS

Dr. B. C Law connects them with the Kulutas the famous republican tribe.⁶ But the people must be assigned, from the context, to the Upper Gangetic Valley. The name survives in Kol of Muslim historians. In *Tāju-l Maāsir* we read that Kutbu-d din marched from Delhi (1194 A.D.), and passing the Jūn (Jumna) took Kol,

vişaya of the Kālañjara-maṇdala in the Kānyakubja-bhukti (EI XIX. 15). The Vappaghoshavata Grant of Jayanāga has a similar reference (EI. XVIII 63, line 3) to Audumvarīka-viṣaya, which as R. D. Banerjee points out (EI. XIX. 286), existed as the name of a division (Audumbaia) even during Muhi mmadan times, and lay to the south to the Ganges and to the west of the Bhāgʻirathī'. A, city named Udumbarapura existed in the Magadha janapada (TAI, p 355). Another Grant issued from the city of Māhiṣmatī (EI. XIX 262) mentions a district or Pathaha of the name of Udumbaragartā near about the central portion of the river Narmadā. Several votive labels at Sanchi Stupa refer to people who were residents of Udubara (Udubaraghariya) which is the Prākritised form of Udumbara (Luder's List, Nos. 186, 609, 610).

- ¹ AI, I 206.
- ² MM, p. 196, 197 fn.
- 8 A royal family of the name of Kapisthala flourished in Guzerat (IA. XI. 102).
- 4 IA. XX, 375; Supra p. 30, fn. 2.
- ⁵ Abhidhāna, p. 890. In the *Trikānḍaśeṣa*, Hastināpura and Gajāhva are given as synonyms of Nāgāhva (p. 32).
 - 6 TAI, p. 897. For the views of Dr. D. C. Sircar, see IHQ. XXI. 301, fn. 6.

which is one of the most celebrated fortresses of Hind'. The Kol country is also mentioned in the Tarikh-I Mubarak-Shahi where it is stated that Khizr Khan chastised the rebels in the country of Kol (1419 A.D.), and after that he scoured the jungles of the Rahab and and Sambhal.² Elsewhere, a description is given of an invading force marching through the town of Baran, and then reaching the country of Kol. After suppressing the rebels in that quarter it advanced into Etawa.3 The geographical indications of the above texts make it clear that Kol was situated to the east of the Jumna, somewhere between Bulandshahr (Baran) and Etawa. In the Ain-i-Akbari, Kol (Koil) figures as one of the thirteen Sarkars of the Subah of Agra. Among the Mahals of the Sarkar of Kol, mention is made of Atrauli, Sikandrah Ráo, Sòròn and Shikarpur all of which exist today as towns of the Gangetic Valley in the region lying adjacent to the north east and south of Aligarh. The Kol country of Muhammadan times, thus corresponded to the region between Aligarh and Barelly districts.

35. KUNTALAS

In the Mahābhārata they are mentioned along with the Kośalas in the list of the northern tribes. Pargiter notices that the country near Chunar to the south of Benares was called Kuntala-deśa. This may be the Kuntala country of Madhya-deśa, for the Kāśis appear next to the Kuntalas in our list. But a country of this name in the south was more well-known in ancient times.

In the Kāmasūtra of Vātsyāyana a sūtra runs thus: Kuntalah Sātakarnih Sātavāhano.⁷ The evidence of South-Indian inscriptions indicates that the Kuntala country embraced the Southern Marhatta country and the adjoining Kanarese Districts. Thus the Gurgi inscription of Prabodha-Siva⁸ refers to the Lord of Kuntala as residing in Vanavāsi (North Kanara). An old Jaina inscription found at Tērdā, which is a village in the Sāngli State in the Southern Marhatta (Maratha) country mentions the Kuntala country

¹ Elliot and Dowson, the History etc. II, p. 222, 224. ² Ibid. IV. 50.

⁸ Ibid. 52. 4 AIA. II, pl. 186.

⁵ Mbh., vi. 9. 52. ⁶ MP, p. 808.

⁷ VKS, p. 394. The Commentator adds that Kuntala in the name of the King bears a territorial meaning as the King was born there. This suggests that a King of the Sātavāhana dynasty ruled over Kuntala in about the third century A.D. or earlier. In the Kāvyamāmāmsā of Rājašekhara a passage referring to this runs thus: Śrūyateca Kuntalesu Sātavāhano nāma rājā (Kāvya, p. 50).

⁸ EI. XXII. 135. vs. 34.

of Bhāratakhaṇḍa and its district Kūṇḍi: Kūṇḍinām-odgha-deśaṅn.¹ In the heart of that district there was Tēridāļa (L. 5), which was evidently the same as Terdal as noted above. The Kūṇḍi district may be equivalent to the Sāṅgli State.

These two inscriptions point to the inclusion of the southern part of the Bombay Presidency and the northern part of Mysore in Kuntala.²

36. KASIS

Numerous references to the people throughout Sanskrit and Buddhist literature show that they were the most renowned people of antiquity. The ancient Kāśī kingdom was bounded by Kośala on the north, Magadha on the east, and Vatsa on the west. The Cedis and Kārūṣas lived to their south.³ The chief city of the Kāśis,⁴ according to the combined testimony of Indian tradition, was Vārāṇasī,⁵ very plausibly connected with the river varaṇāvatī of the Atharvaveda.⁶ The importance of the place is copiously referred to even in many Buddhist books; in the Abhidhānāppadīpiloā, the city is mentioned in a list of twenty ancient cities of India, in another text, Kāsī with its capital Bārāṇasī is regarded as one of the seven political divisions of India, and in the Mahāparinibbāna Suttanta it is declared to be one of the three places of pilgrimage along with Kapilavatthu and Kusīṇārā.⁷

The Kāśī kingdom is mentioned in the book of Ptolemy as (150 A.D.) Kassidas.⁸ The sacred connection of the city of Benares with the Ganges is explicitly implied in many inscriptions of the mediaeval period: Vārānasyām Gamgāyām Snātvā.⁹ In early literature especially in Buddhist texts, Kāsī is seldom found as the designation of the city, and Benares, the designátion of the

¹ IA. XIV. 16. L. 4.

² Rice, Mysore and Coorg, p. 3; Fleet, Dynasties of the Kanarese Districts, p. 284, fn. 2.

³ CH. I. 316.

⁴ Some texts refer to the Apara kaśis (Bhīṣma Parva list) who may have been a branch of the Kāśis. Cf. Kāśayo' para Kāśayaḥ (Padma Purāṇa, Svarga, 3. 38).

⁵ Cf. Mbh (B)., v. 50. 41. The popular derivation of the name is from Varaṇā and Asī, the names of the two small streams which confine the modern city (Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p 34). In the Padma Purāṇa we read: Varaṇāyāstathācāsyā madhye vārāṇasī purī (Svarga, 17. 50).

⁶ iv. 7. 1.

⁷ In the Trikāndašesa, Vārānasī is described as 'tīrtharāja' (p. 92). Cf. Mbh., xiii. 30. 16-18: 'Amarāvatī'.
8 MT, p. 228.

⁹ IA. XVIII. 136, line 25 and p. 139, line 25; EI. VIII. 152-158.

country. In mediaeval times, the name Vārāņasī comprehended the entire district, and Kāśī generally represented only a small place. The Bengal Asiatic Society's plate which may be referred to the early part of the 10th century A.D. mentions Kāśī as a smaller territorial unit than Vārāṇasī, the former being included in the latter:

Pratisthāna-Bhuktau Vārānašī-Visaya-sambaddha Kūšī-pāra-Pathake-Pratibaddha-Tikkarikā Grāma.¹

The Bhukti in question² comprised the modern districts of Allahabad and Benáres, and the Visaya (Vārāṇasī) within it, was undoubtedly the same as the modern district of this name. Kāśī-pāra-pathaka represented the site of the ancient city of the Kāśī kingdom.³ Even in the time of Fa-hien P'o-lo-na i.e. Baraṇā (or Varaṇā) was regared as the capital of Kāśī, but in Hiuen Tsang's time, Po-lo-na-se (Varaṇāsi or Vārāṇāśī)⁴ was a country of 4000 li in circuit, the capital of which bordered on its western side on the Ganges.⁵ In a later Chinese work the two names are treated as convertible.⁶ Thus we read that the kingdom of Kia-shi (Kāśī), also called Po-lo-nai (Varaṇaśi) and Shi-po-lo-nai (Śrī-Varaṇaśi) was situated 1480 li south of the kingdom of Kia-uei-lo-yusi (Kapilavasta). Hemacandra and Yādavaprakāśa also considered the two names as synonymous: Kāśirvarāṇaṣī Vārāṇasī Sivapurāca sā.⁷

From the account of Hiuen Tsang we learn that in his time the people of Kāśī were mostly Hindus, only a few among them being followers of the law of Buddha. He also noted, strange figures of religious mendicants and ascetics, practising devotions of various forms of austerity for which Kāśī was famous. But there were also rich men, who lived in costly houses and the pilgrim records that the manners of the people were kind and soft.8

37. KOŚALAS

Kośala is celebrated in the Rāmāyana:
Kośalonāma muditah sphīto Janapadomahān
Nibistah Sārayūtīre prabhūta dhanadhānyavān.

¹ IA. XV. 138-141, line 10.

² Pratisthāna (mod. Jhusı) was situated on the Ganges, opposite its confluence with the Yamuna near Allahabad. The Grant of Trilocanapāla of the Vikrama year 1084, was found there (IA. XVIII. 33). The village referred to is the same as Tikari, eleven miles due south of Benares.

³ The Muhammadan historians hardly refer to Kāšī. The district and the city was known to them as Banāras (Tabaquat Nāsiri, trans. by Raverty, 1881, p. 470 and 627)¹.

⁴ YC, П, р 47. ⁵ BR, П, р. 44.

 ⁶ IA. XIII, 15, fn. 6.
 7 Abhidhāna, p. 389; IHQ. XIX. 215.
 8 BR, II, pp. 44-45.
 9 Rām; i. 5.
 5.

Ayodhyā stood on the banks of the Sarayū and covered an area of 12 yojanas. An inscription of the 12th century A.D. refers to the confluence of the Sarāyū and the Ghargharā at Ayodhyū.2 But Ayodhyā was of small importance in Buddhist times.³ The Jātakas refer to Sāketa and Śrāvastī as two other cities of the realm. Saketa occupied a portion of the ancient city of Ayodhya,4 and Śrāvastī, which is mentioned in the Jatakas as Śāvatthī, is considered identical with Sähet-Mähet on the south bank of the Rapti, on the the horders of the Bahraich and Gonda districts. The river Rapti crosses the north-east and northern corner of the two districts respectively—the northern basin of the Rapti stretching up to the Nepal border. The Kośala country thus abutted on Nepal Tarai as the position of Sravasti indicates.5 The inclusion of the territory of the Sakyas of Kapilavastu within ancient Kośala.6 shows that the northern frontier of the Kośala country marched along with the Himalayas, from the source of the river Rapti on the west to the source of the Rohini in the Nepal Sweeps on cast, for the Sakyas inhabited the central portion of the Nepal Tarai region, bounded on the west by the Rapti⁷ and on the east by the Rohini.8 The Sakya capital Kapilavastu was in the eastern part of their country somewhere in the neighbouring ruins of Tilaura Kot in the Tarai, about 10 miles to the north-west of Piprāwā9, which lies just outside the north-east angle of the Basti district in Nepal.¹⁰

Rām., i. 5. 6-8.
 EI. XIV. 196; VII 86-7
 Rhys Davids Buddhist
 India, p 34.
 See supra p. 53.

⁸ Kośala had a number of other minor towns (B. C Law, Geography of Early Buddhism, pp. 5-6), but Śrāvastr was famous in the history and tradition of Buddhism as a great centre of monastic activity. In Buddha's time it was included among the six great cities of India, and in a later work, Savatthi was included in a list of twenty ancient cities In the Vaijayanti it is identified with Puramjaka (VJN, The city like Kanyakubja and Pratisthana expanded into a big division in the 7th century as the reference to Śrāvastī-bhukti in the Madhuban plate of Harsa implies (EI. VII. 157). In Hiuen Tsang's account Śrāvastī is described (Shi-lo-fu-shi-ti) as a kingdom of about 6000 li in circuit (BR, II, pp. 2 ff), but the chief town ie. the ancient city of Buddha's time was deserted and was mostly in ruins The Sohgaura plate, probably of the time of Chandragupta Maurya, issued by the Council of Ministers of Śrāvastī refers to the store houses of Trivent, Mathurā (not of the Śūrasenas), Chañchu (Ghazipur), Modāmā and Bhadra, all of which must have been in the Kośala province of which Śrāvastī was the capital (EI, XXII. 2). For a detailed description of Śrāvastī m Indian literature, see Memoirs of the Archaeological Survey of India, No. 50 by Dr. B. C. Law; TAI, pp. 129-132.

⁶ PHAI, pp 84-85; EHI, p. 30, fn. 2.

⁷ Rapson, Ancient India, p. 161; Oldenburg, Buddha, pp. 95-96.

⁸ Oldenburg, Buddha, p. 96. 9 EHI, p. 167, fn. 3.

To the east of the Sakyas lived the Koliyas whose city Ramagrama may have

The Kośala kingdom was thus bounded by the edge of the Himalayas on the north. On the south it might have extended as far as the Sai, the Syandikā of Rāmāyana¹, the largest tributary of the Gumti, which joins it in Jaunpur district. On the west Kośala was bounded by the Pancala country.2 The eastern boundary. according to the Satapatha Brāhmana, was Sadānīrā by which it was separated from Videha. The river has been regarded as the same as Gandak, which takes a course mid-way between the Gorakhpur and Saran districts on the west and Champaran and Muzaffarpur districts on the east, and meets the Ganges opposite Patna. We have, however, a passage of the Mahābhārata which mentions Sadānīrā and Gandak separately: and so the two may not be identical³: Gandakīnca Mahāśonam Sadānīrām tathaivaca. The river Sadanīrā is also identified by some with the Rapti.5 In that case the eastern frontier of the Kośala country marched with Rapti (which takes a course mid-way between the Basti and Gorakhpur districts), and thence with the Gogra with which it unites.6

There were other countries of the name of Kośala, for the Mahā-bhārata employs the distinctive epithet Uttara Kośala. Kośala in the Buddhist texts generally denoted the northern country as described above, and referred to in mediaeval inscriptions as Uttara Kośala. The name 'Ottarakośala' also occurs in a Grant of the Kanauj king Jayacandra evidently referring to the Kośala of Ayodhyā. The lexicographer Puruṣottamadeva writes that Ayodhyā. Uttara Kosala and Sāketa are the various designations of one and the same country. 11

The name Uttara kośala could have been current in popular use

to be located "near Dharmauli on the frontier of Nepal and Gorakhpur" (JRAS. 1902, p. 151).

- ¹ Rām, ii. 49. 11. ² CH. I. 308. ³ Oldenburg, Buddha, p. 398fu.
- ⁴ Mbh., ii. 20. 27. ⁵ MP, p. 294 fn.
- ⁶ If Sadānīrā was the Rapti it would consequently imply that the geographical limit of the ancient Videha kingdom on the west was formed by the rivers Sadāmīrā (Rapti) and Gogra, in other words, it meant the inclusion of modern Gorakhpur and Saran districts within it, of which the former was inhabited by the Mallas.
 - 7 ii. 803. Cf Raghuvamsa, ix. 17.
 - 8 EI. XXIV 293; XIV. 196. 9 IA. XVIII. 130, line 4.
- 10 Cf. Mbh., ii. 20. 28. Uttīryasarayūmramyām dṛṣṭvā pūrvamēca Kośalān. This is surely a reference to Kośala proper just as, Kānti kośala of another passage (vi. 9. 40) bears a similar indication. We have also a reference to Pañcakośalas in the Vāyu Purāņa of which the Mekalas were one (Pargiter, Dynasties of the Kali Age, p. 3).
- 11 TKS, p. 31: Sāketamayo dhyaottarakośalāh. In the Vaijayantī (p. 169, v. 5) and Abhidhānacintāmaņi (p. 389), Sāketa, Ayodhyā and Kosala are treated as synonymous terms.

only with reference to a southern country of this name called Dakṣiṇa kośala. Pargiter thinks that the long stay of Rāma, in course of his exile in the Chhattisgarh district, might have connected it with his home Kośala, and hence the name of Dakṣiṇa-kośala.¹ The Rāmāyaṇa knows the existence of two Kośalas, and states that Uttara kośala which was given to Lava² had its metropolis at Śrāvastī,³ while Kośala which was given to Kuśa had its metropolis at Kuśāvatī near the Vindhyas.⁴ The Mahābhārata likewise links a Kośala country with Bhojakuṭapura and other south-Indian principalities.⁵

Kośala of the Allahabad Pillar Inscription6 was evidently the country of this name in the south. The inscriptions of the Somavamśī kings (c. 950-1125 A.D.) who styled themselves 'Kosalādhipati' have been found near the Raipur District in C.P. Sripura (modern Sirpur) in the Raipur district, continued to be the capital of this dynasty at least from the time of Trīvaradeva to that of Mahāsivagupta Bālārjuna.7 The Rājim and the Baloda Plates of Mahāśiva Tīvararāja, who is styled as the Lord of Kośala,8 refer to Sripura, the ancient capital of Mahākosala situated on the bank of the Mahanadi in the Raipur district, from which his plates were issued.9 Another record was issued from Sarabhapura, which has been variously identified with Sambalpur, Sarangarh, Sarpagarh and other places.10 Other records prove the inclusion of Sambalpur district, and posibly also of the feudatory State of Sonpur to its south within Kośala-deśa or Dakṣiṇa Kosala; because Satallamā (modern Satalma) in Sambalpur¹¹ and Nibinna in Sonpur¹² are described as villages of 'Kaśalodā-viṣaya.' That Sonpur formed a part of 'Sakala Kośala' is also referred to in the Patna museum plates of Someśvara II. the 'Sakala Kosalādhīśvara.' who issued the plates while residing there: Svarnapura samāvāsāt.13 A Grant of Mahāsivagupta who is called Lord of Trikalinga and Kośala was also issued from Suvarnapura which was his camp of victory (Vijayakaṭaka).14

¹ AIHT, p. 278. 2 Rām., vii. 120 7. 3 Ibid. vii. 121. 5.

⁴ Ibid verse 4. L. P. P. Sarma says that the Rāmāyana mentions two Kośalas (IHQ. III. 68-72).

⁵ ii. 31. 12. ⁶ CH. III. 12, line 19.

⁷ EI. XXIII. 118-19. 8 Ibid. p. 19. 9 EI. XXII. 17.

¹⁰ EI. XXIII. 19; IHQ. XIX. 144 fn. 11 EI. XI. 103, line 9.

¹² Ibid. lines 4, 5, 15 and 16. 18 EI. XIX. 99, line 14.

¹⁴ JBORS. 1916, II. pp. 45 ff. The inscription opens with a description of the Pattana-Suvarnapura which is stated to have been situated on the confluence of the Mahanadi and the Tel (Ibid. plate 1, L. 10, p. 52). This is obviously the Sonpur town of the Sonpur Feudatory State situated on the Mahanadi river at its junction with the Tel.

A plate of Mahabhavagupta, who calls himself an ornament of the Soma family, was issued from a place near Bolangir in the Feudatory State of Patna,1 while another was issued from Mūrasīma which is Mursinga in the same state.2 The provenance of these inscriptions indicates that the Sambalpur region, and particularly the South Mahānadī Valley comprising Sonpur, Patna, Sarangarh and Raipur was known as Mahākośala or Kośala of the south. But the Haihaya records on the other hand prove the inclusion of Bilaspur in Kośala. In the Ratnapura stone inscription of Jajalladeva of the (Chedi) year 866, it is said of an early Haihaya prince that he conquered Daksina Kośala, and established his capital at Tummāna: Dakṣiṇa-Kośalo janapado vā (bā) hu-dvayēnārjjitaḥ Rājadhānīsa Tummānah pūrvvajaih krtaityaa.3 Tummāna is the same as the modern village of Tumana in the Lapha Zamindari of the Bilaspur district. Rai Bahadur Hiralal says that Bilaspur and Raipur formed the central portion of Daksina Kośala, and that the capital was either Sonpur or Bhandak.4

It is however possible to state on epigraphic authority that Kośala of the south, consisted of the following visayas at various dates: Telātaṭṭa-viṣaya, Lāvaḍā-viṣaya, Povā-visaya, Bhrāṇḍa-

- in the neighbourhood of the Prthurā-bhukti (Pithorā about 45 miles to the NW. from the Sambalpur town). It appears that the Somavanisti rulers of Mahakośala held sway over modern Patna and Sarangarh States of Orissa. The Patna State is separated from Sambalpur and Sonpur on the north by the Ong. The Tel divides Patna from Kālāhandī on the south. It lies in the valley of the Mahānadī watered by the Suktal and the Tel, bounded on the west by the Raipur district, and on the east by the Baud State. The head-quarters are at Bolāngir.
- ² EI. XI. 102 and 198. Cf. also the Kālibhanā Copper-plate Inscriptions of Mahābhāvagupta edited by Sircar and Rath (IHQ. XX. 237 ff.). The writers are of opinion that this Somavamsti King Mahā-Bhavagupta Janamejaya son of Sivagupta should be designated Mahābhavagupta I.
 - ³ EI. I. 34, line 7.
- ⁴ IA, Sept. 1933, pp. 161-66. For other papers on Mahākośala, see L. P. Pandeya in Mahākośala Historical Society's Papers, Vol. I.
- ⁵ JASB. 1905, Vol. I, p. 7. It it obviously a country on the bank of the modern Tel, and as the donee was a resident of Antaradi in the Lāvaḍā-viṣaya which is identified with mod. Lebda, 48 miles south-west of Bolangir, Patna State (EI. XI. 201), the Telātaṭta-viṣaya may have been to the south of Patna where Tel separates Patna from Kālāhandī.
- ⁶ Although it is not mentioned as belonging to Kośala-deśa in the Grant, it is clear that it formed another part of Kośala, as it was near the Telātaṭta-viṣaya in Patna.
- ⁷ EI. III. 347, line 4: Kojala-dējē Povā Viņayīya. Povā is Pow, 12 mile. NE. of Bolangir (EI. XI, 199). Mention is made of Potā-viņaya in the Kālibhanā.

visaya,¹ Sanūlā-visaya,² Marada-visaya,³ Yodhā-visaya,⁴ Utta-ravalli-visaya,⁵ Khangadyanhā-visaya,⁶ Devībhoga-visaya,⁷ Ţok-kārā-visaya.⁸

Kośala in Dakṣiṇāpatha⁹ is regarded as equivalent to the modern districts of Bilaspur,¹⁰ Raipur and Sambalpur, but widely speaking, it perhaps embraced the whole country, from the confines of Berar on the west to Orissa on the east, and from the Maikala Hills on the north to about Kanker in C. P. on the south.¹¹ Regionally speaking, Dakṣiṇā Kośala was thus a Mahājanapada of Dakṣiṇā-patha.

inscription of Mahā-Bhavagupta I. Potā is equated with Povā (IHQ. XX. 240, fn. 9).

- 1 JBORS. II. p, 53, line 6.
- ² EI. XI. 200 and 403. It is mentioned in the Patna Grant of Dhāradatta which also refers to Jalajadda in Kośala. The *Visaya* has been identified with Soinnūlā, in the Patna State, 22 miles SW. of Talagaja (EI. XI. 200). Jalajadda is modern Jalajodo near Talagaja, 10 miles SE. of Bolangir (EI. XI. 200).
- ³ EI. III. 352, line 25: Dakṣitosalāyām Marada-Viṣaya. Here Tosaba is a mistake for Kośala (fn. 11).
 - 4 IA. V. 55. Possibly the modern Pargana of Jodn a few miles from Katak.
- ⁸ EI. XII. 240, lines 8.9: *Uttaravalli-Vışaya-sam-Kēsalo-rū* (jya) Khandīya. It may be the same as Uttaratira division of Sonpur
 - 6 EI. III, 356, lines 31-32.
- ⁷ EI. III. 357, line 38. It is in the extreme south of the Raipur district (EI. XI. 200).
- ⁸ IHQ. XX. 247, L 5. It is identified with Tukrā, about 14 miles to the east of the town.
 - ⁹ EI. III. 351-54.
- numerous showing that it was the seat of Aryan culture from a very early time. Its early history is connected with the Haihayas who ruled from Ratanpur 16 miles north of Bilaspur town. The territories of the Haihaya kings comprised 36 garhs or forts and the name Chhattisgarh came into being. Ratanpur was founded by king Ratanaraja (EI. I. 35, vs. 11-12) of this dynasty. Tummana, referred to as the capital city, is also mentioned as a deśa (IA. XX. 84 ff; EI. I. 47, vs. 8). From other inscriptions we know that in ancient times the district was divided into some Mandalas, such as Komo-mandala (IA. XVII. 187; EI. XIX. 75), Yayaparamandala (EI. XIX. 75-81) and Madhya-mandala (IHQ. Sept. 1925, pp. 409-14). The first one has been identified with the Pendra Zamindari in the Bilaspur district, the second one with Jaijaipur, 10 miles from Amoda which, is again of the same distance from Janjgir, the head-quarters of a tahsil of the same name in the district, and the third one with the Lepha Zamindari.
- 11 EI. X. 26. The Kuruspal (in Bastar State) inscription of Someśvara gives a list of country names some of which perhaps formed parts of Daksina Kośala. They are Udra (orissa), Lanji (in Balaghat), Ratnapura (Bilaspur), Lemna (may be Lavana, the eastern tract of the Raipur district), Vengi (the country between

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38. AVANTAS

The Mahājanapada of Avanti emerged into importance during the age of Buddha as a centre of great political and religious activity. In the Kathā-S-Sāgara, Avanti's capital Ujjayinī is celebrated as a city, representing the best traditions of Indian culture.

Ujjenī, is the same as the modern Ujjain, situated in the centre of Malwa, on the right bank of the Sipra. The city is mentioned by Pāṇini; in the 'Periplus', Ozene is noted as a trading centre, a flourishing seat of inland trade, whence many commodities were exported through the port of Barugaza or Broach near Surat.⁸ Hiuen-Tsang recorded that in *U-She-yan-na*, population was dense and the establishment wealthy.⁴ According to early Buddhist tradition, India was divided into seven political divisions of which Avanti with its capital Māhissatī was one.⁵ Dr. Bhandarkar says that this was Avanti Daksiṇāpatha of Buddhist text,⁶ presumably standing for the country to the south of the Narmada, known also as Māhismatī, as referred to in the Great Epic.⁷

Māhismatī⁸ is the same as Māhissatī, and is regarded as identical with the modern village of Māndhātā in the Nimar district (C.P.):

the Godavari and Krsna) Bhadra-pattana (a variant of Bhadravati, the present Bhandak) and Vajra (Wairagarh which adjoins the Bastar State, being only 70 miles from Bhāndak, Ibid p 27) But the application of the name Daksina Kośala in a limited sense is also found. The Ratnapura stone inscription of Jājalladeva (EI. I. 32-39) gives the name Daksina Kośala-mandala in a list of other such mandalas which are .- Andhra, Khimdi (Khimdi in the Ganjam district see IA XVI. 131 and JBORS II p. 433, fn 8, which survives in Parläkimedi), Vairāgara (Wairagarh in the Chanda district), Chanda (formerly known as Chāhanda, see EI. XXV. 203), Lanjika (same as Lanji in Balaghat CP), Bhanara (may be some portion of the Bhandara in C P., 38 miles from Nagpur, anciently known as Bhāndāgāra, see EI XXV 206), Tabhāri (IA XVII 167), Dandakapura (can it be the Bastar States?), Nandavalī and Kukkuta (it may be a variant of Chakrakūta or Šakkarakkottam, which lay near the present capital of Bastar; its modern representative being Chitrakûta, see El X. 26). In the Rajini inscription (IA. XVII. 137-140, lines 10-11) we have a list of ancient country names of the neighbouring places. They are: -Bhramaravadra (Barma), Kāntāra, Kusumabhoga, Kandase (hva) ra (Sihoa east of Kanker), Kakayara (Kanker in CP.) and Saraharagadh (Sarangarr east of Raipur).

- ¹ B. C. Law, Ancient Mid-Indian Kṣatriya tribes, vol I, p. 189 and pp. 145-45.
- 2 KSSR, I. p. 69, 242. 8 Periplus, p. 48. 4 BR, II, p. 270.
- ⁵ Supra p. 49, fn. 10. Buddhist and Jaina writers knew of two other cities of Avanti such as Kuraraghara and Sudarsanapura (B. C. Law, Geography of Early Buddhism, p. 22).

 ⁶ CL, p. 45.

 ⁷ ii. 81. 10.
- 8 The Mahābhārata (ii. 81. 21) refers to it as a city. In an inscription (EI. XXV. 82) it is written as Māhimsatī. But Māhimatī is the usual form of the name in which it appears in other inscriptions (EI. IX. 106; XIX. 262).

the village standing on the south bank of the Narmada. The Avanti country lay extended on both sides of the Narmada river reaching upto Rajputana on the north and perhaps the Tapti on the south. But Avanti of later inscriptions and literature denoted the northern country i.e. Avanti proper, the capital of which was Ujjayini, and was bounded by the river Narmada on the south.2 This country again, seems to have been divided into two parts, as a passage of the Rāmāyana indicates: Ābrabantīmavantīnca sarvamebānupasyata. A similar reference is contained in two famous inscriptions of western India of the first part of the second century A.D. Thus the Nasik record of queen Gautamī Balaśrī mentions 'Akarāvantī', and the Junagadh Rock inscription of Rudradaman refers to 'Pūrvāparākarāvantya; and in both cases the names are taken to represent east and west Malwa. The two names in the Rāmāyana are Abravantī and Avantī. Avanti is Avanti proper i.e. the region centering round Ujiayini, and Abravantī perhaps represents Akara or East Malwa,6 comprising the eastern portion of the Bhopal State of which Vidisā was the recognised capital. Abravantī or East Avanti, and Avanti, taken together, consequently embraced the western section of Central India, that high-level region known as Malwa which Hemacandra considered as identical with Avanti.7 An Uijain

¹ JRAS 1910, pp. 444-45. Cf. Raghu vi. 48. Some writers identify it with Mahesvar a town in the Indore State on the right bank of the river (FI. IX. 106). Dr. B. C. Law notes that a river of the Mandhata region called Mahisaki is mentioned in the Rāmāyana (TAI, p. 386). In the Vaijayante, Māhismatē is identified with Vrkasthali (VJN, p 159, v. 9). The Harivainia states that Mucukunda son of Mandhatr built the famous city called Mahismati on the bank of the river Narmada in a hilly place of the Middle Vindhya region, enframed by the Rksa ranges (HV, ii. 38. 14-19). Dr. H. C. Roy Choudhuri says that Vindhya was the general designation of the whole chain of hills lying on both sides of the Narmada, and that Rksa 'lay in the region of the Central Vindhyas, near Saugor' (JDL. 1929, XIX, pp. 19-22), in the days of Ptolemy. The evidence of the Harivainsă, however, cannot be regarded as conclusive as the Purănic writers were not always in agreement with regard to the application of the name Rksa and Vindhya which were occasionally treated as convertible (Cf. DD, p. 168). The position of Māndhātā, which stands on the south bank of the river Narmadā (IG. XVIII. 875-76) on "terraces scarped out of the sides of a hill", satisfies the conditions generally.

² Cf. Avanti-deśa of Kumārapāla-carita of Jayasimha Sūri (DHNI, II, pp. 985-86).

3 iv. 41. 10.

4 El. VIII. 61.

⁵ Ibid. 41.

⁶ It is held that Akara means E. Malwa and Avanti W. Malwa (DD, p. 3) and so the inscriptional name 'Akarāvanti' refers to East and West Malwa.

Mālavāḥ syuravantayaḥ (Abhidhāna, p. 881); see also IHQ. XXIV. 175-76;
TKS, p. 81.

inscription which is dated V.S. 1195 (c. 1138 A.D.) refers to Anahila-pataka as being the royal residence of 'Avantinatha'. From the copper plate inscription of Gaonri of 982 A.D.², we learn that Avantimandala comprised the Bhukti of Maddhuka (mod. Mhow the cantonment near Indore) and the Ujjayanī-viṣaya.³

But Malwa and Avanti are distinguished in many early texts such as the Kāmasūtra and Nāṭyaśāstra (3rd century A.D.). When so distinguished, Avanti perhaps comprised the tract lying between the Chambal river on the west, and the Pārbati on the east. The corresponding portion of the river Narmadā formed the southern boundary, the northern boundary being formed by the southern states of Rajputana.

According to the historical tradition of the Purāṇas the first dynasty of Māhismatī was the Haihaya dynasty. Epic and Purāṇic traditions unanimously represent the Haihayas as ruling in the Avanti-Māndhātā region. Tradition runs that Kṛtavīrya's son Arjuna raised the Haihaya power to eminence, and captured Māhismatī from the Karkotaka Nāgas.⁵ Many inscriptions go to show that this section of the Narmadā Valley was the stronghold of the Haihayas. A Haihaya king is even mentioned as the Lord of the city of Māhismatī: Māhismatī-puravareśvara.⁶ But the Haihayas including their five constituent elements or branches namely the Vītihotras. Śāryātas, Bhojas. Avantis and Tuṇdikeras, all belonging to the family of Yadu,⁷ were spread over the whole extent of country from the river Jumna to the river Tapti.⁸

Early Indian literature connects many tribal names with the Māhismatī region. The Māhisakas lived in the country of Avanti-Daksiṇāpatha; for according to the Harivamśa Mahisa was the country of Māhismatī. The commentator Bhattasvāmī also identifies Mahisa of Kautilya with Māhismatī. Mahisa or Māhisaka thus referred to the country on the Narmada of which Māhismatī was the capital. A Grant of Karaka Suvarnavarsa (Saka 746 = c. 824 A.D.) records that the Māhiṣaka-viṣaya consisted of 42 villages of which Brāhmaṇapallikā was one. The village has been identified with

¹ DHNI, II, p. 966. ² EI. XXIII. 102.

³ It may be noted that Hemacandra considers Ujjayant and Avanti as synonymous names (Abhidhāna, p. 390). But it is the city that is more famous in Indian tradition. In the Abhidhānappadīpikā Ujjeni is placed in the list of 20 ancient cities (Supra p. 41, fm. 11).

⁴ Cf. Bhagavata Purana (xii. 1. 28 ff); also IHQ. XXIV. 176, fn. 32.

⁵ AIHT, p. 266. ⁶ EI. XII. 269 ff. ⁷ AIHT, p. 102.

⁸ MP, p. 371; AIHT, p. 267. ⁹ i. 14. ¹⁰ AS, p. 88, fn. 4.

¹¹ Padma Purāna, Adi. ch. 6. 12 EI. XXII. 77.

Bamroli in the Baroda State. The Narmada skirts a good portion of the Baroda State; the association of Māhiṣaka with the West-Narmadā Valley is thus clearly indicated. Another people called Purikas settled near the Narmada and the Māhiṣmatī region, as Harivamśa states that Mucukunda built a town called Purikā in the centre of the Rkṣa mountains.

The Māhiṣmatī section was also known as Anūpa; in the Raghuvamśa it is clearly stated that Māhiṣmatī, on the Revā, was the capital of the Anūpa country. In the Junagadh inscription, Anupanivrt is mentioned between Ākarāvantī, and Ānartta; and in the Nasik record of queen Gautamī Balaśrī, it is placed between Aparānta and Vidarbha. In these notices the name is taken to stand for the district around Māhiṣmatī, and this agrees with the reference we have of the country in the Raghuvamśa. But Anūpa is explained in the Abhidhānacintāmani as meaning a tract of land near water, and an illustration is given by a reference to Kaccha. In the Mahābhārata Anūpa is mostly mentioned as a coastal portion of the sea: "Sāgarānūpavāsinah" and "Sāgarānūpakāmścaiva teca prāntā vāsinah."

Anupa is here considered as a general term for the area of the coastal band of alluvium formed by the encroachment of the sea. Yet an Anupa country near or within the Māhismatī region certainly existed. The Harivamsa refers to the city of Māhismatī, the capital of 'Narmadānūpa' as nestling under the shelter of the Rksavat Mt. 10 Pargiter thinks that the mouth of the river Narmada was called Anūpa. 11

Near about the Anupa country there lived a people called the Rsikas. A Sloka of the Mahābhārata conveniently brings them into

¹ But this Māhiṣaka-viṣaya is to be distinguished from Māhiṣa-viṣaya of the Salotgi (Bijapur dt.) Pillar inscription (EI. III. 59) which is regarded as identical with the Mahiṣa-mandala of the Mahāvamsa (fn. 2). Mahiṣa-mandala has been identified by Rice with the Southern Mysore country, of which Mysore (Maisūr) was the principal town (DD, p. 120). The Mahiṣa-viṣaya is also mentioned in the Hebbata Grant of Kadamba Viṣṇu-Varman (AR. 1925, p. 98).

² AIHT, p. 262; HV, ii. 38. 20-22. See supra p. 68 fn. 1.

³ Mārk. Purāṇa, ch. 57. A place called Purikā is mentioned in connection with the rule of the first king of the Andhra dynasty (PHAI, p. 330). A place of this name occurs in a votive label at Barhut (No. 30, p. 14, Barhut Inscriptions, Barua and Sinha, 1926, Calcutta). Purikā, the Vākāṭaka capital, was situated somewhere in Berar (NHIP, VI. 114).

⁴ VI, 37-43.

⁵ EI. VIII. 41. 61. ⁶ PHAI, p. 411 & 424. ⁸ ii. 30. 27.

⁷ Abhidhāna, p. 380, v. 19. ⁹ iii. 51. 23.

¹⁰ Dr. H. C. Roychaudhuri in JDL, 1929, Vol. XIX, p. 20.

¹¹ AIHT, p. 266, fn. 2.

contact with the Anupa country: 'Kāmbojā Raikā yeca Paścimānu-pakāśca.' The Raikas are regarded as the same as Asika of the Nasik record of queen Gautamī Balaśrī; and are perhaps referred to in the Rāmāyana as Ratikas which is evidently a corruption of Raikas. The passage containing the name runs thus: "Vidar-bhānastikāmścaiva ramyān Māhisakānapi."

The association of the Rsikas with Anupa and Māhiṣaka is an indication positive enough to suggest, that like their companions, the Rsikas also settled in the central section of the Narmadā valley, between Vidarbha and Māhiṣmatī.⁴ They are connected by one writer with the Raṭṭis, Raṭṭhis, or Rāṣṭrikas, the early inhabitants of Mahārāṣṭra.⁵ Dr. D. C. Sircar draws our attention to a passage of the Hāṭhigumphā inscription of Khāravela, which would indicate that the Asika-Rṣika country has to be looked for in the country between the Kṛṣṇā and the Godāvarī rivers.⁶

39. KALINGAS

The mention of Kalinga as an impure country, in the *Dharma-Sūtra* of Baudhāyana represents a very orthodox view of the early Brāhmaṇical writers; for a Jaina tradition of a very remote period groups them into a class of eastern 'Āriyas' and even mentions a city of the Kalingas called Kāmchaṇapura. Aśoka's famous Rock Edict XIII tends to prove that they were within the pale of Aryan civilization; Brahmans, ascetics and men of different sects are represented to have been living in Kalinga. The Edict also tends to prove the antiquity of Kalinga as the seat of an independent kingdom in early times. Epic traditions also agree in considering the Kalingas as one of the most important peoples of Eastern India; they are represented in the *Mahābhārata* as taking a great part in the Kurukṣetra war.

The Kalinga Edicts of Aśoka found at Dhauli⁸ and Jaugada⁹ are addressed to the *Mahāmātras* at Tosalī and Samāpā, which may have been the early capitals of Kalinga. Tosalī or Tosala presumably occupied the same site as that of Dhauli today, the transformation of Tosali into Dhauli being not a phonetic impossibility.¹⁰ As for

¹ v. 4. 18. 2 EI. VIII. 61. 8 Ram., iv. 41. 10.

⁴ The Mbh., (ii. 27. 25) refers to a people called the Uttara Reikas along with the Kāmbojas.

5 GDRD, p. 44.

6 SI. 198, fn. 3.

⁷ IA. XX. 375, also Supra p. 30, fn. 2.

⁸ A hill in the Khurda sub-division of Puri, about 7 miles south of Bhubanesvar.

⁹ This is about 18 miles west of Ganjam town, on the north bank of Rsikulyā river, in the Berhampur-taluk of the Ganjam district.

¹⁰ S. Levi, Pre-Aryan and Pre-Dravidian India, trans. by P. Bagchi, p. 68.

Samāpā, it is very plausibly suggested, that the head-quarters of the districts to which the modern Jaugada belongs was called Samāpā.¹ These references to Tosalī (Dhauli), Samāpā! (Ganjam?) and Jaugada (Khapimgala), are indications that in Aśoka's time the Mahānadī-Rṣikulyā Valley formed a part of Kalinga.

But Tosala was also the name of a country, as we have a reference to the Tosala-vişaya, and even to the division of the country into two parts, Uttara Tosala² and Dakṣiṇa Tosala.³ Dakṣiṇa Tosala is considered to be the same as the country (Janapada) of "Amita-Tosala" of Dakṣiṇāpatha, which according to Gaṇḍavyūha, as pointed out by S. Levi, hád a city called Tosala.⁴ Dakṣiṇa Tosala was a wide territorial division; the combined evidence of several inscriptions implies that it consisted of a Viṣaya called Anarudra⁵ and a Maṇḍala of the name of Kongoda.⁶

Kongoda-mandala is mentioned largely in the epigraphs of the Sailodbhavas; and as their records referring to the Mandala have been mostly found at Cuttock, Khurda and Ganjam, it follows that this Mandala was roughly equivalent to the region bounded by the river Mahānadī on the north and the Rṣikulyā on the south. It may have been even bigger than that, as according to the epigraphic sources it consisted of the following Viṣayas:—Varaḍākhaṇḍa-viṣaya, Arttaṇi-viṣaya, Khiḍin'gahāra-viṣaya, Kaṭaka-bhukti-viṣaya, Kṛṣṇagiri-viṣaya.

Uttara Tosala appears to have been smaller in extent than Dakṣiṇa Tosala, and its Viṣayas so far known were Pāñcāla, Vubhyudaya, 13 and Sarēph-āhāra. 14 Reference is also made to

Levi says that the vestiges of a large city that have come to light near the site of Dhauli confirm this identification and indicate beyond doubt that in Aśoka's time Dhauli or Tosalī was the capital of Kalinga.

1 CII. I, p. XXXVIII.

- ² EI. XV. 1-3, vs. 5. ³ EI. IX. 286-7, vs. 4.
- ⁴ Levi, op. cit. p. 68. ⁵ JBORS. 1928, pp. 292-306.
- ⁶ EI. VI. 141, L. 21: Daksinakośalāyām Kongoda-mandalake. It is pointed out that here Kośala is a mistake for Tosala (JBORS. V. 564-78. lines 26-28).
 - 7 Cf. EI. XXI, 35. 8 EI. VI. 138, line 26. 9 Ibid. 141-42.
 - 10 JBORS. V. 564-78, lines 26-8. 11 EI. XI. 288 and 286.
- 12 This occurs in a plate of the time of Śaśāńkarāja (G. S. 300=619-20 A.D.). Its records the grant made by Mādhavarāja II of a villages in the Kṛṣṇagiri-viṣaya (EI. VI. 144) which is regarded as identical with its synonym Nilagiri. a name of Jagannath (Puri). The grant was issued 'from the victorious Koṅgēda (L. 8) on the bank of the Śālima river (L. 7, EI. VI. 144). Koṅgēda is also mentioned in ithe form of Kaiṅgoda, as a place name in the Buguda Plates of Mādhavavarman (EI. III. 44, lines 29-30) which record the grant of a village in the Khadira-pāṭṭaka of the Gudda-viṣaya (L. 31). See also R. C. Mazumdar in JAHRS. X. 7-10.

¹³ El. XV. 3, line 3, 6. 14 El. XXIII. 202.

Subhadeva-pataka in Uttara Tosala.¹ The Nelur Grant refers to certain villages of Uttara Tosala which have been located in the Balasore district.² The evidence we get from the Copper-plates of Soro (Balasore district), which record the grant of land in a village adjoining Sarāphā (Soro in Balasore) in Uttara Tosala³ also indicates that the Balasore region was the centre of the Uttara Tosala country. These instances suggest the inference, that Tosala consisting of Uttara Tosala and Daksina Tosala (in which was included Kongoda or Kungada-mandala), stood for the whole expanse of territory, extending from Suvarṇarekhā down to Ṣṣikulyā.

From an epigraphic point of view, we are bound to accept this position of the Tosala country, although it is not consistent enough with other indications of traditional and historical geography of this region. One of the most noticeable features of mediaeval inscriptions is the employment of more than one name for a particular region. Administrative designations like Mandala, Bhukti and Visaya have been tacked on to country names, which in some cases, even when due allowance is made of changing political conditions of the time, cannot be accounted for.⁴ And so far as traditional geography is concerned, epigraphy, which deals mostly with political geography is not always the best approach.

Tosala was not the name of the entire country as outlined above; its ancient appropriate application was confined within the limits of the city of that name, the rest of the country being known by other name. Even Uttara Tosala formed only a part of Odravisaya, and, indeed, Odra was the more well-known name of this region.

In many inscriptions Odra is treated as a Visaya. in some records it is called a Desa The inclusion of Uttara Tosala in Odra

¹ JBORS II 421 2 EI XV 2-3 3 EI XXIII 199

⁴ For instance, in Plate C of the Copper-plates from Soro (El XXIII 199)
Varukāna-visaya is said to have been within Sarēph-āhāra, which in P ate B of the same record (Ibid 202) is called a Visaya Further, we have noted that Sarēph-āhāra-visaya was in Uttara Tosala (Ibid) Evidently, Uttara Tosala was bigger than a Visaya Curiously enough, the same record (Plate B) includes Uttara Tosala within Odra-visaya Odra-visayā Uttara-Tosalyām (202)

⁵ One writer identifies Tosali with the modern Khijjinga in Mayurbhanj whose border is being washed by the Vaitarani (JAHRS III 41 ff)

⁽a) Copper-plate from Sora as mentioned above (b) The Talcher Grant (JASB XII (NS) 293, line 24) (c) The Bengal Asiatic Society's Grant (JASB 1909, V, (NS) pp 347-50, line 20)—mention is made of Odra-visaya and its village Kuruvābhata

⁷ EI. VIII 141, line 16 mention is made of Odra-deśa and its village Purusamandapa; EI III 358, line 33 Odra-deśa and its village Śilābhań japātīr

suggests that in about 508 A.D. (Soro plates) Odra embraced the region between the river Vaitarani and Subarnarekhā. The Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang does not mention Tosala, but refers to Wu-t'u or Uda country which he reached by travelling south-west above 700 li from Karnasuvarna. On the south-east frontiers of the country, on the borders of the ocean, was the capital city Che-li-to-lo.1 It is located in the Mahanadi delta and is connected with a channel still known as Chitratola, 16 miles below Cuttock. Again, a Grant of A.D. 8992 shows that the name Odra (visaya), which was afterwards applied to the whole province was till then confined only to a small region, and originally denoted a district possibly near about Mayurbhanja. Evidently, all these accounts do not agree, but if we combine these bits of information, we see that the application of the term Odra comprehended the entire region from the Chilka lake to the Subarnarckhā river, exactly the tract to which the modern name Orissa has been applied.' A Telegu work refers to Oddādi and its capital Kataka.4 Another evidence goes to prove that in the eleventh century portions of the Parlakimedi Estate in Ganjam was known as Odra-deśa.5

Many notices accompanied by indications, more or less positive, do not testify to the extension of the limits of Odra farther south. Hinen Tsang journeyed south-west from Wu-t'u or Ota (Skt. Odra), and reached Kung-yu-to i.e. Kungada. Similarly, by travelling south-west from Kungada he reached Ka-leng-ka, i.e. Kalinga. The distance recorded by the pilgrim between one state and another in the case of this belt of eastern states has been found to be erroneous: for even by a liberal estimate of the former geographical limits of each of these ancient countries, a distance of about 1.200 libetween Odra and Kungada, and that of 1.400 li from the latter to Kalinga is opposed to all known facts. These countries were

¹ YC II pp 193-95 BH, p 184 BR II, p 905

² EI XXV 159 ³ IG. XIX 249 Orissa means the country in which the speakers of Oriya form the dominant people Mediaeval inscriptions give various forms of the name such as Odivisa (IA, IV 364), Oddavāda (EI, V. 1088, Oddaya (EI IV 270) etc. It was the Orya of Portugese writers (DHNI I, p 491).

⁴ EI XXV 298. In inscriptions we have reference to Kāthaka (EI VII 147) and Ka (daka) (Ibid 145) which refers to Cuttock. It was also the same as Kotātavī identified with the Kotdeś in Saikai Katak (DHNI, I, p 341). Another inscription of Śaka-Samvat 1377 distinctly refers to the city of Kataka as being situated on the bank of the Mahānadī (IA XX 392). In our text it is mentioned as Kaṇtakasthala (No 28 of SE Division) which is a variant of Kaṭakasthala.

⁵ JAHRS, X. 167. ⁶ YC, II p 196. ⁷ Ibid. 198.

essentially contiguous, and in some case were even found to be conterminous on epigraphic authority.

Thus the bearing that Kongoda was to the south-west of Odra as noticed by Hiuen Tsang is tolerably consistent, but Odra with its capital at Cuttock undoubtedly shared the country with Kongada. This country between the rivers Mahanadi and Rsikulya was variously known in ancient times Mediaeval inscriptions already referred to prove that it was a part of Daksina Tosala, and particularly equivalent to the Kongoda country; it was also known as The Bhuvanesvar stone inscription (12th century) refers to Ekāmra (mod. Bhuvanesvar) in Utkala-visaya; in Aśoka's time it also formed a part of Kalinga. It is idle to speculate on the political reasons of such a variety of names, for none of these peoples excepting the Kalingas played any part in political history. But one point seems to be clear, it is this: the appropriate application of the name Kalinga ordinarily did not comprehended any region to the north of the river Rsikulyā or Ganjam for the Rsikulyā-Mahānadī valley was in a geographical position the same to which other names were assigned as verified by epigraphic notices. The statement of the Mahābhārata that the Kalinga country extends from the Vaitarani is not supported by any inscription.

Of the other names of that region Utkala has been left out by Hinen Tsang but Utkala-visaya was certainly conterminous with the region round Bhuvanesvar in the twelfth century as the local inscription provés. A verse in a Odiyā manuscript refers to Khanda-giri in Otkala Utkala, therefore, embraced a portion of the Kongoda country, but it is separately mentioned in the Marania-Mura charter of Mahāśivagupta where Odra is left out Kalinga-Konaadotkalaka Kośala4. Now, if Kongoda was identical with the Mahānadī Rsikulyā valley, the collocation of names suggests that Kalinga was to the south of Rsikulvā and Utkala lay to the north of the Mahānadī river Utkala is grouped with Mekala in the Mahābhārata The Rāmāyana also has a reference to this connection: Mekalānutkalāmścaiva. It is quite possible that the Utkalas were living close to the Mekalaş ie the people inhabiting the Maikala Range which

¹ Ff XIII 150 155 Utkala-deta is referred to in another inscription (EI XI 20-26) 2 Ibd

³ HAIB, p 27, fn 5 ⁴ JBORS II 45 fl

⁵ Mbh (B) vn 3 S1, vi 9 S9 ff

⁶ iv 41 9 In a book of the Pāli canon, Okkalā or Ukkalā ie the Utkalas are mentioned along with the Mckalas (TAI, p 334)

⁷ Mekala is grouped with Kośala as a country in the Plates of Prithiviscus II (EI IX. 269)

is the eastern outer wall of the Satpuras, bounding Chhattisgarh on the west and north.1 In early times Utkala may have been the name of some region close to Maikāla in Kośala-deśa. Pargiter thinks that the two names possess something in common, and that, Utkala comprised the southern portion of Chota Nagpur and the northern tributary states of Orissa.2 The transfer or extension of the name to the country along the sea-board came perhaps later. The name Utkala implies that it was to the north of Kalinga: the location of Utkala-vişaya in what has been found to be the Kongoda country agrees well with the references we have of Kalinga and Utkala. Kālidāsa takes no account of Odra, as does Hiuen Tsang of Utkala, which, according to the former stretched from the river Kapisa (Midnapore) as far south as Kalinga. Perhaps Odra was another name of Utkala from which the modern appellation of Orissa was derived. Sri Purusottamadeva, king of Kalinga, and the author of the lexicon Trikandaścsa,6 writes "Audra Utkalanamano". In later times the names Utkala and Kongoda seem to have been dropped in popular use, and the name Odra generally employed.

All these raise a strong presumption that Kalinga lay to the south of Rṣikulyā. In the Raghuvamśa the Kalinga king is described as the overlord of both the Mahendra Hill⁸ and the sea⁹; and similar references to the close connection of the country with the Mahendra mountain, which are also recorded in inscriptions. suggest that the territories round about the Mahendragiri¹¹ in the Ganiam district were in the heart of the Kalinga country. The Hāthigumphā inscription of Khāravela¹² refers to Kalinganagara¹⁸ as being the

- ¹ Amarakantak, about 12 miles from Pendrā in Bilaspur, across the Rewah border, is the source of the Narmadā and Son and forms the eastern peak of the Maikāla range. So the river Narmadā has been described by ancient writers as Mekalasutā. Son is described as rising from Mount Mekala in the Rāmāyaṇa.
- ² MP, p. 927. For the etymology of 'Kala' in Ut-Kala and Mc-kala and its connection with Kurāla of the Allahabad inscription of Samudragupta, see G Ramadas in IHQ. I. 685. In the time of Śaśāńka, Utkala-deśa was attached to the Danda-bhukti.
 - ⁸ Pargiter identifies it with the Cossye in Midnapore (MP, p. 327)
 - ⁴ Raghu, iv. 38. ⁴ ⁵ Levi, op. cit. p. 84. ⁶ TKS, p. 31
- ⁷ In a South-Indian inscription of A.D. 1336 (EI. XXI. 286) Orissa is referred to as Voddiyarāya. Another Grant of Saka Samvat 1523 refers to Orissa by the name of Oddiya (EI. IV. 270). For Utkalas and Udras see B. C. Law in Journal of Indian History, XIX, Dec., 1940. Dr. R. C. Mazumdar writes that Utkala and Udra were used as syuonymous terms for modern Orissa (JASB. XI, 1945, No. I, p. 7).

 8 vi. 53-4.
 - 10 EI. XIX. 135; DHNI, I. p. 449 & 452. 11 Cf. KSSR, I. p. 150.

¹² EI. XX. 79-80. ¹⁸ L. 3.

capital. Most of the early Gangas of Kalingal like Hastivarman,2 Indravarman, Devendravarman who describe themselves as Lord of Kalinga (sakala-Kalingadhirājyah) issued their Grants from the victorious camp (Vijayavatah) at Kalinganagara. The later Ganga kings of Kalinga also in most cases issued their Grants from this city.6 The city is variously identified with Mukhalingam some 20 miles from Parlakimedi in the Ganjam district,7 or with Calingapatam⁸ a sea coast town in the Bay of Bengal about 20 miles from Chicacole at the mouth of the Vamsadhara river. Besides Kalinga nagara. the Plates of the early Ganga kings of Kalinga, like Jayavarmadeva and Indravarman, refer to the victorious residence of Svētaka, 10 which has been sought to be identified with Chikati in the Ganjam district. Again, some epigraphs of a line of kings whose names end in Varman, and who call themselves 'Kalingadhipati' throw much light on the history and geography of Kalinga.¹¹ Thus a Grant of Viśākhavarman¹² was issued from Śripura, which is regarded as identical with Siripuram in the Palkonda-taluk of the Vizagapatam district. 18 A Grant of Anantavarman was issued from the royal residence of Devapura, variously identified with places in the Srungavarapukota-taluk and in the Chicacole-taluk.¹⁴ But "Kalingadhipati" Anantvarman also issued another Grant from the victorious city of Pistapura, which is the same as Pithapuram in the Godavari district. 55 Grants of other kings like Candravarman and

¹ IA. XIII. 278. ² EI. XXIII. 65 ³ EI. XXV. 195.

⁴ EI. XXVI. 63 ⁵ Ibid. 67. ⁶ DHNI, I, p. 457-58.

⁷ DHNI, I, p 448 and 485 fn. 8. It was also called 'Nagara' (EI. XXIII 65) R. Subha Rao says that Mukhalingam was the ancient capital city of Kalinga both in times of the early and later Gauga kings (JAHRS VI 56-62; 83-84).

⁸ EI XX. 79-80.

⁹ Kalingapattana is perhaps also referred to in the Pattanabhoga of the Plates of Anantavarman (EI. XXIV 49, fu. 5), 'which is evidently derived from Pattana perhaps an abbreviated form of Kalingapattana'

¹⁰ EI. XXIII. 261; XXIV. 181; EI. XXVI, 167.

¹¹ Dr. R. C. Mazumdar says that they 'ruled in Kalinga during the interval between the invasion of Samudragupta and the rise of the Ganga dynasty', and that they all flourished between 400 and 500 A.D. (EI. XXIII 58 and EI. XXIV. 50).

¹² EI. XXI. 24.

¹³ El. XXI. 24; XXIV. 49, fn. 11. It is also identified with Sirpur. 18 miles from Parlakimedi in the Ganjam district (El. XXIII. 119).

¹⁴ EII. XXIV. 50.

¹⁵ EI. XXIII. 57. The Grant in question records that Anantavarman's grand-father Gunavarman ruled over Devarāṣṭra, which must have been the kingdom of the same name conquered by Samudragupta, and is identical with a taluk in the Vizagapatam district. Although it is treated separately from Piṣṭapura in the

and Ananta-Saktivarman were issued from Singhapura.¹ One Grant of Umāvarman was issued from Vardhamānapura² and another from Sunagara.³ The Jaina Upānga called the Prajūāpanā refers to Kāmchanapura,⁴ and the Mahābhārata to Rājapura⁵ as the metropolis of Kalinga; while Dantapura a famous Kalinga city⁶ has been plausibly connected with the fort of Dantavaktra near Chicacole.⁵ The Kathā-S-Sāgara refers to Sobhāvatī as a Kalinga city.⁶ Now, from a reference to all these principal cities in the records of kings calling themselves 'Kalingādhipati', and from the epigraphs of the early and later Ganga kings as well, it is clear that the Kalinga country stretched along the eastern coast, from the Ganjam district in the north to the Godavari district in the south as far as the river of that name.⁶ The country to the north of Ganjam as far as the river Mahānadī also occasionally formed part of Kalinga¹o, as in the

emperor's Allahabad inscription, the plate of Anuntuvarian indicates that he was ruling over Devarāṣṭra, and Pistapura was the chief city of the kingdom. Now, if the Anantavarian of Siripuram plates (EI XXIV, 49) and of the present Grant are identical it will appear that he ruled over the entire country from the river Varisadharā to the river Godavari (JAHRS VIII 155-56).

- ¹ EI XXIV 49. Cf. Simhapura of Mahāvastu (Senart's edition, p. 432), which may be mod. Singupuram near Chicacola
- ² EI. XXIV 49 This is identified with Vadama in the Palkonda-taluk in the Vizagapatami district (EI XXIV 49, fu 14).
 - 3 Ibid. 50. 4 IA XX 375; Supra p. 30, fn 2.
 - ⁵ xii. 4. 3. ⁶ Mbh (B), vii. 68. 5 Dantakūra.
- 7 PHAI, p. 75, fn. 7. See also El. XXV, 285 For Ptolemy's 'Paloura' and Dantapura and other views connected with the location of the latter see HAIB, pp. 29 ff.

 8 KSSR, II, p. 851 and 412

 9 El. XXIV 50.
- 10 The name Kalinga had been very often used in the widest sense. The Mahābhārata (iii. 114 4) recognises the Vaitarani river as the north-eastern boundary of Kalinga. Pliny's reference to the Gangaridae as a Kalinga people may indicate the extension of ancient Kalinga as far as the Ganges. His Calingae perhaps means Kalinga proper and Macco-Calingae may have a reference to the Mekala portion of Kalinga. The Puranus also refer to the connection of the Kalinga country with the Mt. Amarakantaka. According to the Kurma Purana (ii. 39 9; see also Skanda Purāņa v. 3. 21. 7) the Amarakantaka hills formed the western boundary of the country. In the Matsya Purāna (ch. 184, v. 12) it is clearly stated that the Narmada drained Amarakantaka situated in the western half of Kalinga. The boundaries of the country reached even up to the Gangetic delta on the north as in time of the Eastern Ganga King Anantavarman Codeganga. But the natural geographical limits of a country are not to be confused with the extension of its territorial frontiers due to comquests abroad. To regard Kalinga country as extending from the Gangetic valley up to the Godavari, or even Kistna on the south, is to ignore all ancient notions of the geography of this portion of India,

time of Aśoka, when Tosalī i.e. Dhauli in the Mahānadī valley was a part of Kalinga.1

So, within these limits of the Kalinga country as outlined from the provenance of all these records, and the places mentioned therein, we will have to locate all the ancient districts or Visayas of Kalinga country incidentally referred to in the different kinds of Kalinga inscriptions of various dates. A list of the different districts hitherto known is given below:—

Rūpāvartanī-visayas, Ndadāsrnga-visaya, Pratisthana-visaya2. Varāha-Vartanī4—'', Krostukavarttanī5—', Kāmarūpa6—''. Pusyagiri-pañcāli7---". Korāsodakā-Khalugakhanda9-", pañcalis-". Tellavalli-visaya¹⁰, Javadā-risaya11. Hēmvakamatamvavisaya12. Puskarinī-visaya¹⁸. Patanikhanda-visaya11. Ambavadi-visaya15. Kantaka-vartanī16—". Gorasatta-visaya17, Erada-visaya18.

- ¹ For the boundaries of Kalinga at different periods, see JAHRS II. 17-23; 196-203.
- ² EI. XXIII. 261 The donce was a resident of the Pratisthana-nisaya. The name survives in Pithapuram in the Godavari district.
- ³ This is perhaps the some as Rūpyavati-viņaya of the Tekkalı Plates of Indravarman (El. XVIII 309 fl).
- ⁴ It is mentioned in a number of early and later Ganga records. It perhaps roughly corresponded to 'the coastal portion between Chicacole and Tekkali' (ELXXIII, 65). The Korm Grant of Anantavarran Codaganga (c. 1076-1147 A.D.) records the grant of the village Khonna in Varāha-vartanī (DHNI, l, p. 462). The village is the same as Korni near Kalingapaṭam.
- ⁵ It is mentioned in some of the early and later Gauga inscriptions (EI. XXVI. 66, fn. 4 and 5) and is identified with the country to the north of the river Vanisadharā in the Gaujam district.
 - 6 It may be just another district of ancient Kalinga (Ibid).
 - 7 EL. XXVI. 63; JAHRS. X. 164-65.
- ⁸ El. XXI. 24; IHQ. XX. 233. It has been shown that it was a part of the Kalinga country. It comprised the region round the modern village Koroshanda, a village six miles to the south of Parlakimedi in the Ganjam district.
 - 9 EI. XXIII. 266, 268.
- 10 EI. XXIII. 57-59. It may be connected with the river Tel in the Zamindari of Jaypore (Ibid 59). Dr. R. C. Mazumdar identifies it with Tella-gamudy, 14 miles to the SW. of Srungavarapukota
 - 11 EI. XXIII. 264. 12 EI. XXIV. 181. 13 EI. XXIII. 75.
 - 14 ET. XXVI. 167. 15 IA. XVIII. 167-8 and 170-74.
 - 16 Ibid. p. 171, fn. 9.
- 17 It consisted of 35 villages and seems to have been near the Varnéadharā (DHNI, I, 457; EI, XI, 149).
 - 18 It consisted of 12 villages of which one seems to have been at a distance

Vepūrā-visaya¹, Kolu-vartanī-visaya,² Samvā-visaya³, Sammaga-visaya,⁴ Galela-visaya⁵, Jalamvora-visaya⁶.

41. VRKAS

In the Bijayagarh (near Byana⁷ in Bharatpur State) stonepillar inscription of Viṣṇuvardhana (year 428=372 A.D.) mention is made of the Varika tribe⁵ to which the king belonged. The inscriptional name Varika is the correct form of the name Vrka. This indicates that the Vṛkas settled in the Bharatpur State. Further details about them are lacking. In the Vaijayanti of Yādavaprakāśa Vrka is mentioned as a country of Madhya-deśa.⁴

of 15 miles from Badam (DHNI, I, p. 457 and 490) in the Palkonda-tuluk (Vizug-dsitrict) which as has been shown was known as Vardhamānapura.

- ¹ The reference to Vāḍām in this connection (DHNI, I, p. 457 fn. 5) shows that it was in Palkond in the Vizag, district.
 - 2 This is regarded as the same as Varāba-vertanī (Ibd. 458, fit 1),
 - 8 IA. XVIII. 165-172.
- 4 DHNI, I, p. 466. Reference is also made to a Vāṭaka called Tittningi (Trillingi) which was within it 5 IA. XIV. 11, line 14
- 6 JAHRS, III, 184. It is identified with Jahmuru near Urlam in the Genjam district. For MÜLAKAS (No. 40) see supra p. 50
 - 7 The ancient name of Byana seems to have been Śripathia (IA XIV 9)
 - 8 CH. III. 253. 9 VJN, p 38, v. 40.

CHAPTER IV

THE NORTHERN DIVISION

(See chart No. II)

In this division is tabulated by far the greatest number of ethnic and country names—in all more than one hundred, half of which is recorded by the text of the Va. group. The text of this group is very exhaustive.; all the lists, generally speaking, conform to the same order and form, and are, surprisingly enough, free from the errors of peculiarity other The omission and commission. prodigious lists of this text is that a large number of essentially dissimilar names go under nearly the same number in much the same position in the different lists. This will be clear from the list of the Brahma and Vāmana Purānas. The text of the Brhatsamhitā group also record a good number, its three lists are in substantial agreement and form one single text. The account of Parāśara, in its usual way, supplies a long list of names which are not supported either by the Mark (k). or by the Brhat-samhita lists, although some of the names are found in the text of the Va. group. The accounts of the Garuda and Kūrma are incomplete and serve The list of the Kāvyamīmāmsā is a fairly no useful purpose. complete one, but it does not belong to any particular group. With the exception of some very few entries which do not find any support, the other names of its text are not new to us. The number of ethnic and country names recorded in the various lists are shown below:

Brsam, Parasara, Mark (k). | Va. Mat. Mark. Br. Vam. Garuda, Kür. Kavy. 60 54 47 49 30 47 46 54 6 10 20.

The table shows that practically the same number is recorded by each of the two texts; but they exhibit two different sets, although features of agreement between the two texts are more common here than elsewhere, for as many as six names are common to both the texts. The list of the Brhat-samhitā begins with Mt. Kailāsa and ends with the Kṣemadhūrtas, and except some variant readings the whole list of the Brhat-samhitā stands corroborated. It would appear that the variantly read names of Mārk (k). It is list [see chart No. II] plainly refer to those of the Brsam. list which are shown against them. However, the whole list of the Brhat-samhitā with the exception of No. 33, the inclusion of which is not supported by either

of the accounts may be admitted into this division. Those names of the Mārk (k). and Parāśara which are not supported by any of the lists of the Brhat-samhitā text are to be excluded from this division, excepting those appearing in the text of the Vā. group. The Venukas of Mārk (k). (No. 31) are supported in their inclusion in this division only by the Vāmana, but as Vāmana's account is open to great doubt the name is not shown here.

The different lists of the Va. group form altogether a different This text begins with the Balkikas and ends with the Darvas, and follows nearly the same order with very few displacements and The list of the $V\bar{a}yu$ was the source of the other accounts of its group; the other lists have tried to follow the Va. in their own way, with the result that the entire list of the Va. stands supported and as such admits of inclusion in this division. The Matsya list is seriously defective, because there are some unaccountable gaps in the latter portion of its accounts, but its first 23 names are an exact replica of that of the Väyu The list of the Markandeya presents some peculiar features. The whole list is modelled exactly on that of the Vayu in the same order and setting, except that it omits names going under Nos. 15 and 20 of the Va. list. But the list of the Mark. can be conveniently noticed in two parts. It is clear that the Mark. has subscribed to the whole list of the Va.. by following a wrong plan. The division of its list into two parts may be due to textual corruptions, the first 22 names of Markandeya's list in this division (see chart No. II & chart in p. 2), which are widely supported in their inclusion here, have been designated by it as being peoples of the North-Western Division (see chart No. III). It has been shown that no Puranic text belonging to the Va. group contemplates such a division, and so this designation of the geographical details of the Northern Division, as North-Western, may rightly be regarded as erroneous; more so because, the first 22 names of the Markandeya (ch. 57, 35 ff.) are perfectly in agreement with the first twenty-two names of the Va. and so, of the other lists of its group going under the Northern Division. The second set of Mark.'s list (ch. 57, 38 ff.) from the Kambojas (No. 23) to the Urnas, which is found in the same setting and order as in other lists of its group, is labelled by it as 'people of outside race'. It is, however, immatertial to consider by what label these names are designated by the Mark., for these are exactly the names which the Va. and the other Puranas enumerate in the latter part of their lists going under the Northern Division,

and consequently Mārkaṇḍeya's 'people of outside race' belong to this division. We thus see that the Mārkaṇḍeya has preserved intact the list of the Northern Division though under different forms.

The important feature of Brahma's list is that it repeats in full that of the Märk, with the exception of only one name. But its reading is very defective, almost every name being misspelt, thus differing widely from the readings of the Vä. and Märk. But the order of narration is correct; there are some names whose position and reading in the Br. list show very striking resemblance with the corresponding names of the list of the Märk. (e.g. names going under Nos. 5, 14, 15, 18 and 35). On the whole, the list of the Br. is a good supplement to that of the Märk., and in some points forms an independent account. The list of the Vämana is the longest. Sometimes it leaves out known details and sometimes it mentions the same name twice, yet the Vämana, of all the Puränas, supports the Vä. list best. The whole list is, therefore, necessarily included with the exception of those entries which remain uncorroborated. The list of the Kāvyamīmāmsā has been examined in the same way.

The following ethnic names and countries, therefore, belonged to the Northern Division according to the text of the Brhat-samhitā group:—

- (1) Kailāsa-Giri, (2) Himavat-Giri, (3) Vasumat-Giri,
- (4) Dhanusmat-Giri, (5) Kraunca, (6) Meru, (7) Uttara Kuraba,
- (8) Kṣudramīnas, (9) Kaikeyas, (10) Vasātis, (11) Yāmunas, 1
- (12) Bhogaprastha, (13) Ārjunāyanas, (14) Āgnīdhras. (15) Ādarśa,
- (16) Antardvīpa,2 (17) Trigartas, (18) Turagānana, (19) Švamukhas,
- (20) Keśadharas,³ (21) Cipiţanāsikas, (22) Dāserakas,⁴
- (23) Vāṭadhānas, (24) Šaradhānas, (25) Takṣaśilā, (26) Puṣkalāvatī, (27) Kailāvatas, (28) Kaṇṭhadhānas, (29) Ambaras,
- 1 Alberuni says that they were a kind of Greeks (AI, I. 302), but this cannot be accepted.
 - ² Alberuni reads Antardvīpa (op. oit.).
- 3 Pargiter takes this word as (MP, p. 376) an adjective qualifying the people going under No. 21., but this is incorrect.
- 4 Alberuni's Dasers and Kavaṭadhāns (op. cit.) are plainly mistaken readings.
- 5 The Dasadhanas of the Parasara list and the Adhamas of Mark (k). (No. 25) seem to refer to the fundamentals of the name Kanthadhana and they have been shown accordingly in the chart. Dr. Kirfel, however, takes the word 'Adhama' of the Mark (k). list to be a part of the name Puskala and makes it Puskaladhama which he puts under No. 23 in the Mark (k). list (DKDI, p. 89).

- (30) Madrakas, (31) Mālavas, (32) Pauravas, (33) Daņdapingalakas, (34) Māṇahalas, (35) Hūṇas, (36) Kohalas,
- (37) Sātakas, (38) Māṇḍavyas, (39) Bhūtapura, (40) Gāndhāras,
- (41) Yasovatī, (42) Hematalas, (41) Rājanyas, (44) Khacaras,
- (45) Gavyas, (46) Yaudheyas, (47) Dāsameyas, (48) Syāmākas,
- (49) Kşemadhürtas.

The following list may be exhibited in the Northern Division according to the text of the Va. group :--

- (50) Bālhīkas, (51) Ābhīras, (52) Kālatoyakas, (53) Aparān. tas.² (54) Šūdras, (55) Pahlavas, (56) Carmakhandikas, (57) Yavanas, (58) Sindhu, (59) Sauvīra, (60) Šatadruhas,⁸
- (61) Kulindas. (62) Pāradas, (63) Hāra. Hūņakas, (64) Rāma-
- Pauravas are not mentioned by the Mārk (k). (see chart) but Dr. Kirfel puts the Venukas of the Mārk (k) list (No 31) against the Pauravas. Similarly although Kecchāras of the Bream, list (No. 33) are not mentioned by the Mārk (k). (see chart), Dr. Kirfel puts Vadentika of Mārk (k). (No. 32) against Kacchāra. There are many other such readings (DKDI, pp. 88-89).
- 2 Most of the accounts of the Va. group read Aparantas. $V\bar{a}yu's$ reading Aparitas (No. 5) is obviously a corruption of the name. The next name Sadras is very clearly mentioned in all the lists—it is not Kandra as is suggested (1HQ. XXI. 302, fn. 18).
- It is evident that $V\bar{u}yu$'s reading namely Sakas (No. 14) is incorrect for the majority of the lists support the reading taken. The Mateya Purāṇa also refers to the fundamentals of the name Satadruhas, if we connect its name Sakas, going under No. 14, with Druhyas, going under No. 15. making it Sakadruhyas and so Satadruhas. $V\bar{u}yu$'s reading of Hūṇas under No. 15 is not supported by any other list of its group and so if it is meant to be Druhyas like the reading of the Matsya, it comes to Sakadruhyas (connecting No. 14 with No 15 of its list), a nearer approach to Satadruhas. The variants of the name given by Dr. Kirfel are many (DKDI, p. 72). Dr. B. C. Law thinks that the different parts of the name refer to different peoples and so connects the name with the Sakas and also with the Druhyas of Vedic antiquity (TAI, p. 399). Dr. D. C. Sircar reads Satadruja (IHQ, XXI. 302, fn. 23).
- 4 The name, Pulindas, could have been considered but as the people are elsewhere mentioned, the alternative reading Kulindas, a well-known people of the north is shown in the list. Kalingas (No. 15) of Märk, and Brahma which is shown against the Kulindas (No. 16) of the Vā., is manifestly a corruption of the Kulindas, the earlier part of the name Kali, seems to contain a feeble link of its connection with Kulinda. The reading Kuninda is not supported by adequate evidence (Sircar, op. cit.).
- 5. The variants of the name are many, such as Hārapurikas, Hārahūņakas, Hārabhūṣikas and even Hāramuṣikas. The Hārabhūṣikas perhaps refer to the Hāramuṣikas. The Hārapurikas are mentioned only in one text, whereas

thas, 1 (65) Rūddhakataka, 2 (66) Dasamālikas, (67) Settlement of Katriyas, Vaisyas and Sūdras or Upanivesa, (68) Kāmbojas. (70) Varbaras, (71) Angalaukikas, (69) Daradas. (72) Cinas, (73) Tukhāras. (74) Bāhyatodaras, (75) Atreyas, (76) Bharadvājas. Prastalas. (77)(78)Lampākas, (79) Stanapas, (80) Pidikas,4 (81) Jāgudas, (82) Apagas, 5 (83) Alimadras, (84) Kairāta. (85) Tāmasas or Tomaras, 6 (8d) Hamsa-mārgas, (87) Kāśmīras, (88) Tanganas, (89) Cūlikasor śūlikas, (90) Kuhakas, (91) Urnas.

Harahūņaka is mentioned by the Brahmāṇḍa and the Kāvyamīmāmaā. So the variants resolve into two names, Hāramuṣikas or Hārahūṇakas. Both Muṣika and Hūṇaka refer to two tribal names, whose branches may have been indicated by the word Hāra. As Hūṇas are mentioned as a people of the North, the reading Hāra-Hūṇa is taken.

- 1 The reading taken is best supported by literary references to the name. But a South-Indian inscription refers to a king of the Ikṣvāku race who is called Māḍhariputa (IA. XI. 258, line 1), i.e. the son of the queen of the Māḍhara (Sans. Māṭhara) family. It is held that the Māṭharas were a Brāhmaṇical race mentioned in the Gaṇas to Pāṇini and elsewhere (Ibid. 258, fn. 2). For the Māṭharas of Kalinga, see NHIP, VI. 79.
- ² The Matsya Purana reads Kantakara, but Vayu's reading need not be disregarded (IHQ. XXI, 303, fn. 24).
- 3. The name is hopelessly misspeit. The component parts of the name as given by the different texts have the largest measure of agreement in the name taken. For the variants noticed by Dr Kirfel, see DKDI, p. 73, and Dr. Siroar in IHQ. XXI. 303, fn. 32.
- 4 The name Stanapas and Pidikas are taken on the sutherity of the Va., no two readings are alike. See also DKD1, p. 73.
- 5 D C. Siroar reads Āvaganas and Culikas (IHQ. XX1. 304, fn 35 and 36) which is extremely doubtful. He thinks that Aupadha and Alass the other variants of the name refer to Aurasa (op. cit.), but Vāyu's reading seems best.
- Evidence is equally balanced in favour of taking the Tomaras, the name of a celebrated Rājput tribe who were settled in the region round modern Delhi in the 9th century A.D. The Pebos Praéasti of the reign of Mahendrapāla refers to Tomara-vamsa (El. I. 245, vs. 5). But the Rājput Tomaras are not meant here, for reference to the Rājput royal claus like the Pratibāras and the Cahamānas are not to be found in any of the texts reviewed. The famous royal races which played a considerable historical part seem particularly to have been excluded in the traditional accounts under review.
- ⁷ The reading Kulūtas and Bāhikas (Sircar, op. cit. 305, fn.42) in place of Cūlikas and Kuhakes appears to be highly improbable as Vāmano's version, unless corroborated, is open to doubt.

1. KAILÁSAGIRI

It is distinguished from the Himalayan range, and is described as standing at the back of Himavata: Himavatah pṛṣṭhe. Kailāsa mountain is situated about 25 miles to the north of Mānas-sarovara beyond Gangri and to the east of the Niti Pass. From the Kathā-S-Sāgara we learn that it towered many thousand yojanas in the air and contained an inexhaustible mine of jewels.

2. HIMAVATGIRI

In the Matsya Purāṇa, Himavān and Hemakūṭa are described as full of snow, extending down to the ocean on both sides east and west:

Avagāhya hyubhayatah Samudrau Pūrvpaścimau Himaprāyaśca Himavān Hemakūtaśca Hemavān.⁵

The Kathā-S-Sāgara refers to some Himalayan cities such as Pushkarāvatī 'Puṣkalāvatī), Vajrakūţa, Sundarapura, Madanapura, Vīrapura, Kāñcanābha, and Vaidūryasṛṅga, which if identified may testify to the magnitude of the Himalayan range. Hemakūţa was also called Rṣabhakūţa and Hemagiri, ; according to Pargiter it represented a portion of the Himalayan hills on the western part of Nepal. This is supported by the evidence of the Kathā-S-Sāgara, which places Hemakūṭa somewhere to the south of the láke Māuasa. 10

Poetic fancy was, however, responsible for many legends concerning the Himalayas. Thus Himalaya is called *Menakāprānes* i.e. the lord of Menakā¹ and their son is called Maināk. The $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana^{12}$ refers to the Maināka-parvata, which is to be reached

- 1 Mark. Purana, 54.24.
- 2 Mateya Purana, 121 2.
- 3 JASB. 1838, p 314.
- 4 KSSR. I, p. 2 & II, p. 469
- 5 Mat., 113 11. In the Skanda Purāņa (i.2.37. 41 and also verses 54.55. Niṣudha, Hemskūta and Himavān are styled as 'Maryyādaparvatāḥ' lying to the south of Meru. Cf. Mbh., vi. 5.3.
 - 6 KSSR, I, p. 253, 338, 405, 494, 497, 502; II, p. 22 104.
 - 7 Mbh (B), iii 92.3.
- 8 MP, pp. 369.70.
- Jbid. 360. Hemakūṭa was also the name of a hill at Vijayanagara (EI. XVIII. 164, vs. 29-35; see also ibid. XIII. 11). This may have been the same as Hemagiri mentioned in the tiet of the South-Western Division (No 22).
- 10 KSSR, I, p. 438. Hemakūţa is also identified with the hills of Kashmir (IHQ, XIII. 534-40).
 - 11 Abhidhana, p. 411.

after crossing the Krauñca-parvata; the latter according to the Mahābhārata was the son of the Himalaya. Evidently, these were the contiguous parts of the Himalayan chain. The Taittirīya Āraņyaka mentions Maināga and Krauñca²; various other references to the two in Epic literature indicate that Maināk represented the group of hills in the north of the Almora district,³ and the latter, a group of hills between the lake Mānasa and the Mount Maināk.⁴

Mūjavat or Mūñjavat was another portion of the Himalayas or one of its peaks. In our list of the NE. Division, which is a mistake for the North, the name occurs as Mount Muñja (No. 34) The Mahābhārata places the hill at the back of the Himalayan Mountain system: Girerhimavatah prothe Muñja vānnāni parvatah. In Zimmer's view, Mujavant was one of the lower hills on the south-west of Kashmir.

But Meru, the 'Olympus of the Hindus' is the most celebrated of all mountains. Alberuni tells us that Meru is in Himavat. According to the Epic and Purāṇic tradition it was the same as Sumeru-parvata, which according to the Matsya Purāna was bounded on the north by Uttara Kuru, on the south by Bhāratavarsa, on the west by Ketumālā and on the east by Bhadrāśvavarṣa this usually identified with the Himalayan range in Garhwal; Kedārnāth in Garhwal is still traditionally known as such. In popular tradition Meru must have denoted something very high,

- 1 Mbh (B); iii, 187.82 2 i. 31.2 3 MP, pp. 287-88.
- 4 In the Rāmāyaṇa (iv. 43. 18ff.) mention is made of Kailāsa-parvata where there is a great lake Višālā nalini yatra (v. 22) This is the lake Mānasa which is cituated to the immediate south of Kailāsa mountain. After finishing their search for Sītā there, the emissaries were instructed to go to the Krauñea mountain (v. 25) where there was a hill called Mānasa: Śailañca Mānasam (v. 28). This shows that Krauñea was to the south of Mānasa-sarovara. In the Meghadāta too, Krauñea is placed south of that lake and it is further stated that there is a pass through it leading to the lake (i. 57.59). This is taken to be the Niti Pass and in that case Krauñea is to be located to the north of Garhwal. Leaving Krauñea, they will reach Maināka: Krauñeam girimati bramya Mainākonāma parvatah (v. 29) But in the Padma Purāņa (Svarga, ch. 2.63) Maināka is placed to the north of Kailāsa: Astyuttarena Kailāsam Mainākam parvatam prati.
- 6 AI, I. 246 But it is usually treated as a fabulous mountain in the centre of the earth Of. Itaviasyamadhyetumeruh Kanaka parvatah (Mark., 54 14)
 - 7 Dowson, Classical Dictionary, p 208; DD, p 130.
 4 Ch 113.
- DD, p. 197. The Taitiriya Āraņyaka (i. 7 1.3) refers to Mehā-meru as the name of a mountain. A passage of the Mahābhārata (xvii 1.2) associates Meru with Bālukārņava to be north of the Himavat which may

possibly the highest of the Himalayan spurs, for Indian kings are very often atyled as the Meru of Kings. 1

The Himalayan chain had other names which are apparently derivatives and qualify Himavat. The word 'Hemādri' or 'the golden mountains' was so called either because they were supposed to contain gold mines, or because of the scene they presented when their snowy peaks reflected the golden effulgence? of sunset or sunrise. The latter feature of the Himavat reflecting the golden effulgence of the sunset, and looking like a jewel might refer to the word Manimat which occurs as the name of a mountain in our list. A passage of the Mahābhārata gives the name to a spur of the Himalayas: Punyain Himavatah pādain Manimantañca parvatam. Maniman or Manimanta is also mentioned in the book of Kautilya. Similarly, the mass of clouds embracing the snow-peaked Himavat obviously refers to the word Meghavat Mountain of the Western Divison (No. 2). And because Himavat was supposed to contain rich mines it was called Vasumat, for the earth is styled Vasumatī 'full of wealth', in the Sānkhāyana Āranyaka, and Ratnagarbhā in other works. A passage of the Mahābhārata, which refers to the hidden wealth of the Himalayas runs thus:

> Bikhyāto Himavān punyalı Sankaraśvasuro girili Ākarah sarvaratnānām Siddhacārana sevitah.

Further, as the great Humavat stretches along the north like a drawn bow, it was very appropriately called also as *Dhanusmat*:

Himavānuttare ņāsya Kārmukasya yathā gunah.

7. UTTARAKURABA

As a terrestrial object it was a trans-Himalayan tract lying to the north. In the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ we get an elaborate description of the people of Uttara Kurava, which is represented as a land of perennial happiness.

have been the name for the desert of Gobi (H. C. Roy Chaudhuri, 'The mountain eystem of the Puranas', JDL, XIX, 15, fn. 1). Meruka of the NE. Division (No. 1) of our text which is a mistake for the 'North' possibly refere to this desert.

1 EI XV. 346, versa 19.

- 2 Cf. Tatra Somagirisnāma Hemamayo mahān (Ram., iv. 43.54).
- ³ vii. 78.24. 4 AS, p. 78. 5 xiii. i.
- 6 Cf Abhidhana, p 374, v. 3 7 xiii. 25.62. of The Himalayan city Vajraküţa full of diamonds (KSSR, I. p. 405).
- * Mark.. 57.59; Br., 27.65-6; Skanda, vii. 1.1].13; i.2.87.56. For VASUMAT-giri (No. 3), DHAŅUSMAT-giri (No. 4), KRAUNCA (No. 5) and MERU (No. 6) see above.

8. KŞUDRAMINAS

They may be connected with the Minas, who were among the earliest inhabitants of Rajputana, and a tradition runs that they were 'formerly the rulers of much of the country now called Jaipur'. It is said that Jaipur was really made up of petty Mina states now under the chieftaincy of the Kachwaha Rajputs², who had dispossessed the Minas perhaps in about the beginning of the twelfth century. It is not possible to fix the date of this tradition, but it may be assumed that before the Rajputs were organised into a great political power in Rajputana, the country was divided among a number of small clans of which the Kaudramīnas who lived in Jaipur were perhaps one.

9. KAIKEYAS

They obtained their name from an eponymous ancestor Kaikeya, the son of Sivi Ausinara, who founded through his four sons the Kingdoms of the Vṛṣadharbhas, Madras, Kekayas and Suvīras⁴. Early Jaina tradition refers to Kekaya and the city Seaviā⁵. In the Bārhaspatya Arthasāstra, a work not anterior to the sixth century A.D., Kekaya is mentioned as one of the eighteen Visayas⁶. In the Rāmāyaṇa, Rājagṛha is represented as the capital of the Kekayas: Kekayeṣu parantapau pure rājagṛhe⁷. The city was also known as Girivraja (Girivrajanipuravarani), where messengers bound for Kekaya arrived⁴. Cunningham identifies this place with Girjak or Jalalpur on the river Jhelum in the Jhelum district⁶. The Kekaya country on the line of the Jhelum, thus lay to the east of the Gandhāras and west of the Madras, and comprised the modern districts of Jhelum, Gujarat and Shahpur. 10

- ¹ IG. XXI. 114. ² Glossary, III, p. 102.
- ⁵ IG. XXI. 114. In the Ain-i-Akbari we read of an encounter that took place between the descendants of the brother of Jaichand king of Kanauj and the Mīna tribe in Marwar. The story is given of how the Mīnas were disposeessed of their holding in Rajputana (AIA, II, pp. 270-71).
 - 4 AIHT, p. 264. * 5 Supra p. 30, fn. 2.
- 6 The eighteen Viçayas are the following:—Nepāl, Lāṭa, Kāśī, Pāñcāla, Kekaya. Sṛñjaya, Mataya, Magadha, Mālava, Sakunta, Kosala, Avauti, Saihya, Vaidarbha, Videha, Kaurava, Kāmboja, Daśārṇa (ed. by F. W. Thomas Punjab Sanskrit Series, No. 1, 1931, pp. 20-21, Sūtras 87-98). The Kekaya country according to Pāṇini was a janapada (vii. 3.2).
 - 7 11. 67. 7. 8 11. 68. 19-22. 9 AR. II. 14.
- 10 The indications given in the Rāmāyana regarding the location of the people are somewhat vague and the accounts are rather involved and confused.

The geographical position of the Jhelum district on the great north-western highway, by which so many foreign invasions took place in the past, beginning from the time of Alexander, had necessarily turned its people into hereditary warriors. The Kekayas were the principal combatants in the Kuruksetra war, and the great Epic records that they were noted bowmen¹. The Kekayas or a branch of them, also settled in Southern India, particularly in Mysore², and possibly also in the north-east of Bengal³.

10. VASĀTIS

Such combinations as Sivayotha Vasatayah very frequently occur in the Mahābhārata⁴. They were the Ossadioi of the Greeks, another independent tribe, who sent envoys to Alexander offering the submission of their nation⁵. At the confluence of the Akesines and the Indus Alexander received the envoys of the Ossadioi⁶; the indication is positive enough that the Vasatis occupied the territory on the line of the lower Akesines (Chinab); perhaps in the upland which runs like a wedge between the river Indus and the Chinab. The Matsya Purāņa says that the river Indus flowed through the Vasati janapada⁷. In the Harivanisa we read that the Vasatis were a vigorous and powerful people⁸.

Thus it is said that the messongers lif. 68 15ff.) crossed the Ganges at Hastina-pura and after passing through the Pañeāla country proceeded westward through Kuru-Jāngala. This brings as to the tract which lies to the west of the Jumna. Proceeding westward they crossed the river Iksumstī, trekked on through Bālhika (vs. 17-18), and then passe by the Vipāśa etc. (v. 19), and finally reached Girivraja. So Iksumstī river and the Balhika country have to be located in the region between the river Beas and the Jumna. There is nothing in the text which suggests that the Kekaya country was near the Gandhara risaga. On the other hand, the mention of Girivraja immediately after Vipāśa, without any further account of place names of the country between the rivers Jhelum and Beas suggests that the Kekaya country perhaps lay near the Beas.

1 ii. 4. 31.

- 2 IC. IV. 576. Dr D. C. Sarkar writes that the Southern Kekayas belonged to the Ārreya gotra and the Soma-rama and matrimonial relation with the bouse of Ikṣvākus took place.

 3 IC. July, 1941, p. 59.
 - 4 Mbh (B), v 185.7; vii. 78. 38, also vi. 18. 12; vi. 51. 14; vi. 106. 8.
 - 5 MI, p. 156, and fn. 2. 6 Ibid. 155.
- 7 Mat., 121. 46-47. Cunningham prefers to identify Ossadioi with the Yaudheyas, the modern Johlyas who settled along the banks of the lower Sutlej (MI, p. 156, fn. 2). The name may also respond to the Besatae a tribe mentioned in the Periplus (Periplus, p. 278-9) whose country has been identified with Gan tok near Tibet. Cf. Mbh., vii. 21.28: $P\bar{a}rvatay\bar{a}$ Vabatoyab s ii. 84.50.

As septs of the family of Anu, and descendants of king Usinara, the Sivas were connected with the Yaudheyas, Ambasthas, Vṛṣadarbhas, Madras, Kekayas and Suvīras¹, and taken together they occupied a portion of the Punjab. The Vedic tradition about Sibi Ausīnara connects the Sibis with the Usīnara Country, which was generally speaking the country to the north of Hardwar near the source of the Ganges², and in literature also, the Usīnaras are often associated with the Sibis. But the Jūtaka accounts of the king Sivi of the Sivi country who had his capital at Arithapura³, point to the Swat valley as the ancient Sivi Kingdom⁴, which seems to have been known also to Fahien and Hiuen Tsang. They connected Udyāna (=Swat)⁵ with the epic story of King Usīnara of Sivi-rūṣṭra who made a wonderful sacrifice to save the life of a dove.

The Sibi or Sobii of Greek accounts are taken to be the same as Sibi or Sivi of Indian literature. Both Curtius and Diodoros state that the united stream of Hydaspes (Vitastā-Jhelum) and the

¹ AIHT, p. 264. ² In the Kathū-S-Sāgara (I, p. 11), Mt. Uśinara is placed near Kanakhala, near the source of the Ganges. See also ABORJ. XXIX, p. 127, fn. 9.

³ No. 537, CJ, V, p. 107; No. 546, CJ, VI, p. 215; No. 499, CJ, IV, p. 250.

⁴ DD, pp. 187-88 the Mataga Puraga says that the river Indus tiowed through the Janapada of Sivapura (121, 46-7). Dr. B. C. Law connects Arithapura with Ptolemy's Arithapura in the north of the Punjab (TAI, p. 83).

⁵ Swat or the valley of Suvastu. with its capital at dauvastava (Pan, iv. 2.77), was a part of the ancient Mohāganapada of Gendbāra, but it also represented the ancient Uddyana country, the Aurdayani of Katyayana (Bhanga, II, 292) vaich in its restricted application stood for the country encompassed by the rivers Savacta and Gauri. Uddyana thus lay on the right of the Indus, which represed it from the ancient janapada of Urasa (Hazara) which lay on its left. The frequent references to the place-names of the valley of the Suvastu in the works of Pagini indicate the importance of this region. Yew miles north of Attock, where the Indus receives its tributary the Kabul, lies Ohind, the uncient Udbhanda, where the trade routes to the trans-indus districts (of Pare-Sindhu of Mbh; Sabha, 51. 11) in the Uttarapatha orossed the Sindhu Udbhanda lay in the centre of the Gandhara country being almost equidistant from Taksasila and Puskalavati (mod, Carsadda), its eastern and western capitals respectively, the latter being known to the Greeks as Peucelactes (Pushelas of the Markandeya) standing near the junction of the Swat with the Kabul. Varana of Panini (iv 2.82) which is referred to by the Greeks as Aornos, the name of a fort in the country of Assakenoi, corresponding to modern Una (Unra in Pushtu) a few miles to the west of the Indus, was another celebrated country of this region and appears as Urnas in our text (No. 91). 6 Mbb; ili, 130, 131.

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Akesines (chenab) flows down to the territories of Sibi¹, which shows that in the fourth century B.C. the people settled in the country lying below the junction of the Jhelum and the Chenab on both sides of the latter and not necessarily on the western side³. Inscriptional evidence indicates that they had their capital at Sibipura, modern shorket in the Jhang district of the Punjab.³ When they met Alexander, their military position was quite strong, as they possessed 40,000 foot soldiers, and their war accountrements, namely, hide of wild beasts for armour and clubs for weapons showed their preparedness for war.

The Sivis had many other settlments. Later on, sometime before the second century B. C., they migrated to Rajputana and established a Janapada in the country around Madhymikā. A branch of the people probably settled in Sind, and also on the banks of the Kāveri, and in the mountains of Seweya in Gorakhpur.

13. ĀRJUNĀYANAS

The name Arjuneya is mentioned in the Rgveda as the patronymic of Kautsa. They are connected with the Pandava prince Ariuna. As an independent tribe following the profession of arms, they are mentioned, along with their associates, the Yaudheyas, by the celebrated grammarian Panini. Numismatic evidence proves that both these powers, who were quite viable separately established a form of political organisation in about the middle of the first century B. C.. • and began to grow powerful, as seems very likely. with the disappearance of the Indo-Greek power. Though they submitted to the rule of the Sakas and the Kūshāṇas, they recovered their position after the decline of the latter, but for a short period only, as later on, they succumbed to the rule of the Guptas, and consequently appeared in the same context in the Allahabad inscription of Samudragupta. The value of the notices made of the two tribes in the texts under review, lies in this that they show the continuity of the stability and independence of some of the famous tribes of India.

- 1 MI, pp. 232, 285; 2 MI, p. 366; MA, p. 14, fn.
- 3 El. XVI. 15-17; See also EHi, p. 97, fp. 2. 4 See Supra pp. 46-47.
- 5 Age of Imperial Unity, p. 160, fo. 4. 6 PHA1, p. 205, fn. 5.
- 7 EI. XVIII. 137, vs. 17. For YAMUNAS (No. 11), see supra p 43. BHO-GAPRASTHA (No. 12), is the same as Baghpat, a few miles to the north of Delhi.

 8 i. 112.23; iv. 26.1.
- ⁹ CH. 1.528. Other coins are assigned to the second-third centuries A.D. on the ground of their similarity with the Yaudheya-Mālava coins of this period (P. Gupta, in IHQ.XXVII. 208).

The character of this ethnic grouping is referred to in several of the coins, as the word $ga_{n}a$ actually occurs in combination with the Ārjunāyanas who seem to have lived in the triangle of land formed by Delhi-Agra-Jaipur¹. The more famous of the $ga_{n}a$ communities were the Madras, Mālavas and the Yaudheyas, the $ga_{n}a$ character of their tribal organisation being stated in their coin-legends and also in the literary and epigraphic references to the names. These communities, as noticed under the entry 'āyudhajīvī saingha' of Pāṇini, were military republics and subsisted by profession of arms, 2 to which the tribal organisation of the Trigartas was also affiliated. But the Trigartas were a janapada community as is indicated by the legend of a coin (Trakata janapadasa) which is assigned to the first half of the second century B. C. 4 This shows that the profession of arms was not necessarily confined to the $ga_{n}a$ communities.

The question is what was the difference between a gana and a janapada. Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar was of opinion that gana was a kind of political organisation tribal in character, and was mostly confined to the Kşatriya order. He cites the case of the Yaudheyas who were an eka-rāja Kṣatriya tribe, that is to say, the military order was monarchical in character.⁵ Indeed, Yaudheya coins bear the legend 'Mahārājasa', in Brāhmī characters of the of the first century B.C., 6 and the Bijayagadh stone-inscription, in characters of the secondthird century A. D. refers to one Mahārāja Mahāsenāpati the ruler of the Yaudheya-gana. At a later date, the Yaudheyas were formed into a Rāja-sabdopajīvī Samgha, i. e. an aristocratic organisation all the the members of which had the title rajan. So the ganas like the Yaudheyas and the Malavas represented the government of the chief families of the tribe, but a janapada, as seems very plausible to infer, was a democratic organisation, in which the people controlled the administration. The legends of the coins issued by the

- 1 CCAI, p. LXXIX, LXXXIII.
- 2 IV. 168; V. 3.117.

3 V. 8.117; IV. 1.178.

- 4 COAL, p. OXL.
- 5 CL, p. 144, fp. 2., p. 166.
- 6 CCAI, p. CXLVII.

⁷ CL, pp. 164-167. Kautilya, it may be noted divides the Samphas into two classes, Vārt-opajīvin Samphas i.e. those dependent upon agriculture and trade (AS, p. 407) such as the Kambojas, and the above mentioned corporation of the people known as Rājan like the Madrakas, Mallakas, Kurus, and Pancalas. See also Jayaswal's Hindu Polity (p. 20) who thinks that a gana was the same as a modern democracy.

8 CL, pp. 141, 173.

janapada communities like the Sibis, Trigartas, Vemakas¹, Āgreyas², and the Rājanyas³ seem to give emphasis on the word janapadasa, which may be interpreted to mean that janapada was a viable unit of, and belonging to the people as a whole. The popular character of a janapada community appears to have been indicated in a passage of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁴ and in a statement in the kathā-S-Sāgara⁵. But the distinction between the gaṇas and janapadas is not always clear. Thus Pāṇini for instance divides the janapadas into two classes, the monarchical or Ekarāja states (iv. 1.168-176), and secondly, the military orders or the Ayudhajīvī Sanapas. This description, strictly stpeaking, would refer to the gaṇas only, and

- 1 See P. Gupta, in 1HQ XXVII, 199
- 2 lbid. 198-109: Agodaka Agacha janapadasa. The Agreyas who are described as the people of Agredaka lived in Hisser district in the 2nd Century B. C. The coins of the Vernakas are found in Hoshiarpur.
- Their coins were struck with the bare legend, Rajana janapadasa (CCA1, p. exxiii), Rapson (CH. L. 528) and Allan were of opinion that it was a synonym of Kastriya or in some way connected with the Rajput title Rana. Jayaswal correctly stated that the reference is here to the name of a people, i.e. the Rajanya tribe. Dr. Bhandarkar points out that even Fanini mentions them in his aphorism: rajanyadibhya vun (IV. 2. f3) which shows that they were known as a specific people (CL, p. 173, fn 2) This view is atrongthened by the fact that in our list also, the Rajaryas appear as a apecific prople (No. 43) like other tribes of the Punjab They may be contrasted with the Ganan and Gramaniya janupadas referred to in the Sabha Parva of the Mahabharata (ii. 35, 1.18). As the coins of the Rajanyas have been found in Hoshiarpur district they seem to have lived there. According to another view they lived in Rajputna (Age of Imperial Unity, p. 160, fo 5) In the second Prayasti of Baijnath (EI 1.116, line 10) the title 'Rajanska' etands for the chiefs of Kongra (See also CL, p. 173). But the coirs of the people assigned to the 2nd and 1st centuries B.C., however, show that this janapada community changed the character of their settlement into a gang and formed a new grouping of power with the Vranie (Vranie ajajajaganasya trutarasya) who are usually connected with Mathura and I waraka (of. also Andhaka-Vrani league referred to by Pānini), possibly on the lines of a confederation to meet the threat of a political pressure. P. Gupta thinks that the Rajanyas also formed an alliance with the Kunindas for the word $R\bar{a}j\tilde{u}ah$ of their orins is a mistake for $K\bar{a}ja\hat{n}ah$ (1HQ. XXVII. 199-204). It seems that the Răjanya-gana was a confederation of many states, as the scholasts on Pānini, iv. 2.52 refer to Vasăti, Devayāta, Bailvavana, Ambarīşaputra etc. as the different constituent elements of this federal organisation (Agrawals in IHQ, XXIX, 3).
- 4 Ibid. IHQ. XXVII. 199. 5, KSSR, II, p. 498 (last tine): In the realm of the king of the Sivis, real power was in the hands of his subjects,

similarly his classification of the ganas into different classes such as Kacchādi (iv. 2. 133) and Sindhvādi (iv. 3. 93) etc., under which is included many janapadas does not imply the probability of any distinction between the two. Further, Pāṇini's Sālva, Sālveya and Sālvāvayava are considered to have been three distinct janapada units which were monarchies¹, and the last one was a confederation of six monarchical stats.² Trigarta-janapada was also a confederation of six states (Trigarta-ṣaṣṭha)³. It appears that janapadas or Ganas whether monarchical or not, formed federal alliances with other groups of their community, setting up a sort of state-system (Mitrapada⁴?) and to that extent refashioned their constitution.

14. ÅGNĪDHRAS

An Āgnīdhra may be defined as a priest who kindles the sacrificial fire⁵. The Agnikula Rajputs are said to have been brought into existence by a special act of creation on the part of Viśvāmitra who produced four clans, the Paramāras, Soalūkis, Pratihūras and the Chauhāns from a fire fountain that was ignited by him on the Mt. Abu⁶. As Viśvāmitra was the Āgnīdhra, the famous Rajput clans created by him were supposed to have been called the Āgnīdhras, whose cradle, as the story goes, was Mt. Abu in the heart of Rajputana⁷, the country of the gaṇa communities in particular, like the Ārjunāyanas, Yaudheyas and Mālavas⁸, who were regarded as 'examples of early Rajput states'. Their proximity with the Ārjunāyanas is suggested by the collocation of the names in the list, and with the Mālavas and other such gaṇa, tribs of that area,

- 1 See Agrawala, in IHQ. XXIX. 19 2 They are: Udumbara, Tilakhala (Hoshiarpur), Madrakāra (warriortroops of the Madras), Yugandhara (Ambala). Bhulinga (Aravalli), and Saradanda (Sardanas?), Ibid. 19-22.
- 3 Pān; v 3.116. 4 See P. Gupta for janapada and Mitrapada in IHQ. XXVII. 200.
 - 5 Benfey. A Sanskrit-English Dictionary, p. 71.
- 6 IG. XXI. 113. In the Mahabharata, it is stated that the pai Vasistha whose hermitage was on the Mt. Abu, created out of his fire-pit a hero named Paramara to oppose Visvamitra (Vana, Ch. 82).
- 7 A Jaina work perhaps of the 12th century A. D. refers to the association of the Paramäras and the Solankis with the Mt. Abu (IA. IV. 267) and further says that the former were created by Viávāmitra. It may be noted that mention is made of the hill in question immediately after the Agnidhras in this list (No. 15).
 - The Bhagavata Purana (xii. 1.36) associates Malava with Arbuda.
 - 9 CH. 1.528.

by a statement of Karna's conquest which runs thus: Agneyān Mālavānapi gaṇān sarvān binirjitya. 1

Here we have literary reference to a tribe bearing allusions of their origin from Agni and resembling in tribal characteristics the Mālavas who are commonly grouped with the Yaudheyas and the Ārjunāyanas.

15. ADARŚA

This is the famous Aravalli Hills (the word Arāvalā or Arāvalī, literally means the hills which form a barrier), referred to in 'Ādarśa' of Patañjali which according to him formed the western boundary of Āryāvarta: Prāgādarsāt Pratyakkālaka, etc.² Regarded from a truly conventional sense the hills, which formed the western most limits of India may have been known also as Astācala or the Mountain of the setting sun.³ Astācala is mentioned in our list of the Western Division (No. 5).

When Rājašekhara says: Devasabhāyāh paratah paścāddeśah, he must have the Ādarśāvalī in view⁴. It is suggested that the original name of Devasabhā was Devaśāpa or 'Punishment of the Gods's from which was derived Ptolemy's Apokopa⁶ i. e. the Aravalli Hills. But the description given of Arbuda as 'Devasevitā Kulācala', plainly gives the clue to the name Devasabhā' of Rājašekhara.

The main range of the Aravalli Hills terminates in the south-east corner of the Sirohi State, while 7 miles to the north-west, separated by a narrow valley, stands the celebrated Mountain Abu, 'the hill of wisdom' or Ar-budha of ancient literature. A good account of the religious merit of the mountain is furnished by the Arbuda-Khanda of the $Skanda\ Pur\bar{a}na$. The Mt. Abu inscription of Samarsimha records the putting 'in of repairs in a Matha' on the Mount, which is described as: "Arbudovijayate girir=u ch chaīr deva-sevitā-kulā cala-ratnam'." In one inscription again, it is referred to as 'Himādribhava', and in another it is used in a territorial sense standing for the region round about the celebrated hill: $Bh\bar{u}$ -main-dalam Arbudasya. As an administrative division, the territory round Arbuda may have been known as Arbuda-mandala. 11

¹ Mbh; iii. 253. 19-20. ² Mahābhāşya on Pāṇini, vi. 3, 109; ii. 4. 10 (Kielborn's edn., III, p. 174). ³ Of Rām., iv. 42. 51-52.

⁴ ABORI. XXIX. 1949, 143-144. 5 MT, p. 355. 6 Ibid. 76.

⁷ The name Devasabhā also occurs in the *Kathā-S-Sāgara* (II, p. 539) but as a city of the eastern region.
8 IA. XVI. 350, line 38.
9 EI. XI. 67;
XIV. 303. vs. 3; IX. 79ff.
10 EI. IX. 11.
11 JBRAS. XXIII, 78 ff.

A historical work by a great Jaina scholar which may be assigned to the 12th century A. D. describes the sanctity of the hill and inter alia records: On this Abu it is always cool, so the people dress themselves in lion's skins. Here there are mines of various kinds, so that people are wealthy: famines do not occur, disease is hardly known. On this Abu, many Bhills live who are skilful as guides, also cultivators, salats, painters, gamblers too, many of them: there are mines of stones, etc.' 2

16. ANTARDVĪPA

This perhaps refers to a land between the confluence of any two rivers of the Punjab. Rechna Doab was the plain country between the Rāvi and the Chenab rivers As Trigarta is the next name, this Doab might have been meant under this entry.

17. TRIGARTAS

As noticed before 3 they were a gana community in the time of Pānini but later on changed into a janapada.

Trigarta-janapada, as indicated in an inscription. corresponded to the modern Bist Jullundur. Doab, or the country between the Beas and Sutlej; but in general it denoted the region watered by the three rivers, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. Hemacandra treats the two names as synonymous: Jālandharastrigarttāh syuh. According to Hiuen Tsang, She-lan-talo or Jullundur was 1000 li (167 miles) from east to west and 800 li (133 miles) from north to south. To the pilgrim, it was the name of the city and the district, exactly as it is now of the Punjab. But the modern Jullundur district has an area of 1,431 square miles, whereas according to the pilgrim's estimate it was far bigger than that. In Hiuen Tsang's time, as in Pāṇini's time, the kingdom of Jullundur (Trigarta) also included the modern districts of Hosiarpur and the hill district of Kangra i. e. the Kulūta country.

According to the Rājataranginī, the ancient kingdom of Trigarta or Jālamdhara embraced the Kangra district. Epigraphic evidence, too, proves the inclusion of the district within Trigarta. The Baijnāth *Prašastis* refer to Kīragrāma 11 which is the same as

^{1 1}A. 1V. 71. 2 Ibid. 267-268. 3 Supra. pp 94 95. 4 EI. I. 116.

⁵ The name is given as Jalandhara in an inscription of the 15th century (EI. XXI. 278).

⁶ Abhidhana, p. 382, This is also endorsed by Yadavaprakasa (VJN, p. 37, v. 26).

7 YC, I, p. 296.

CAGI, p 157.

⁹ IV. 177, RT, I, p. 138. 10 III. 100, RT, I, p.81. 11 EI. 1. 111, p. 33.

Baijnāth, a village in the Kangra district, about 30 miles east of Kot-Kangra on the east or left bank of a tributary of the Beas. The inscription gives the pedigree of the Rājānakas and princes of Kīragrāma, who were kinsmen or feudatories of the kings of Trigarta. The second *Prašasti* actually refers to Kīragrāma as being within Trigarta.

Hiuen Tsang noticed that the country was favourable to cultivation; and fruits, flowers and cereals grew in abundance.² Even now the Jullundur region is one vast sheet of luxuriant and diverse vegetation's and is regarded as the garden of the Punjab. But the traveller was not pleased with the Trigartas whose appearance appeared to him as common and rustic.⁴ In the Rājatarangīni we have a line which runs thus: 'Even the Gods have no pity in Trigarta.'5

22. DĀSERAKAS

The word 'gaṇa' is nearly always added to their name, and Pargiter says that "they appear to have comprised several bands." Hemacandra identifies Daseraka with Marava: Maravaetu Daserakāh. Marava is the same as Mārava which was the name of Marwar. Evidently, the name is another addition to the ethnic stock of ancient Rajputana.

- 1 The territory round Baijnath or Kiragrams might have been known in ancient times as the Kira country mentioned in the Rewah stone inscription of Karna (EI. XXIV. 104), in the Bheraghat inscription of Albanadevi (EI. II. II and 15, vs. 12), and in the Khalimpur plate of Dharmapala (v. 12). The Kiras were an old people and were ruled by the Sahi kings. A Sahi king of Kira is mentioned in the Khajuraho stone inscription of Dhanga Candella (EI. I. 123 ff; p. 134, vs. 43). A Kira king is also mentioned in the Karambel stone inscription of Jayasinha (IA. XVIII. 215 and 217, lines 11-12). Dr. R. C. Majumdar says that the Kira kingdom should be placed in the neighbourhood of Jalandhara, and refers to Kiragrama or Baijnath (IHQ. IX. 10) as the royal seat. The Kiras appear as a people of the NE. Division (No. 4) which as we have pointed out, was a mistake for the 'North'.

 2 BR. I. p. 176.
 - ² IG XIV. 222. 4 BR, I, p. 176.
- 5 VIII, 1531, RT, II, p 120 For the following names, TURAGĀNANA (No. 18), ŠVAMUKHAS (No. 19), KEŠADHARAS (No. 20), CĪPIŢANĀSIKAS (No. 21), see infra, discussion on the Kulindas (No. 61).
- 6 MP, p. 321. 7 Abhidhāna, p. 382, see also TKS, p. 31 (Dašerakā Marubhubo). 8 See Supra p. 40.
- For VĀTADHĀNAS (No. 23), see supra p. 54, ŠARADHĀNAS (No. 24) see supra p. 55., TAKṢĀŚILĀ (No. 25) and PUṢKALĀVATĪ (No. 26) see supra p. 91, fn. 5,, and the author's article in the Journal of the Ganganath Jha Research Institute, vol. vi, Pt. 3, pp. 283-288.

27. KAILĀVATAS

The name is considerably distorted, by a slight transposition of some letters it may be changed into Kaivātalas, which may represent an original like Kubhātalas. Kubhā occurs in the Rgveda as the name of the Kabul River, known to classical writers as Kophen or Kophīs¹ which were presumably derived from Pāṇini's Kāpiśī,¹ the capital of the kingdom of Kāpiśa. Kāpiśa is generally identified with modern Kafiristan south-east of the Hindu Kush³ extending as far as the river Kunar including Ghorband and Panjshir valleys, roughly corresponding to Hiuen Tsang's Kapisene the capital of which according to Cunningham⁴ was either at or near Opian or Hupian⁵, a little to the north of Charikar, and 50 miles to the north of Kabul⁶. The ancient route from Kāpiśa to Bālhīka crossed the Bamian pass, which was the Varmatī of Pāṇiniⁿ, near Charikar. So the people of the western section of the Kabul valley are referred to under this entry.

28. KAŅŢHADHĀNAS

The name is considerably distorted, but the context indicates that it is another place-name of Afghanistan. If the original was a

- 1 MM, pp. 198-199.
- 2 IV. 2. 99. ci. $K\bar{a}pis\bar{a}yana$, the name of the wine of that place.
- 3 The Hindu Kush separated Kāpiša from Bālhīka. Its foreign names such as the Paropamisidai (GK.) and Parruparaesana (Behistun Ins.) are derived from Skt. Uparišyena, meaning, out of reach of the Eagles. Dr. Agrawala draws our attention to Lohitāgiri (Kāšikā on IV. 3.91) as the old name of Hindu Kush, whence the name highlanders of Rohitāgiri and the name of Roha of Afghanistan (IHQ, XXIX. 6). It may be noted that the Greek name of Kabul was Ortospanum, derived from Skt. Urddhastbāna or high land (CAGI, pp. 38ff) and Ptolemy says that Kabura or Ortospana was the capital of Parapamisadai (Ibid. pp. 21, 37; MI. p. 58, fn. 4). The classical notices to the tribes designated Parapamisadae (MI, 58, fn. 4) indicate that Paropamisadae was nearly equivalent to the Kabul valley (CAGI, pp. 36ff): and was inhabited by many martial tribes.

 4 CAGI, pp. 23-24.
- 5 Hiuen Tsang says that the capital of Fu-li shih-sa-t'ang-na was U-pi-na which was 20 li round. The name Opian, may be a contraction of the Sanskrit name Upanivesa In our list of this division, we have reference to the settlement of the Kastriyas, Varsyas and Śūdras (No. 67).
- 6 Charikar to the north of Kabul was a place of great importance, whence three roads that led into Baktria diverged (CAGI, pp 28-29; Holdich, Gates of India, p 357) Vast ruins have been discovered at Opian which thus lies in the neighbourhood of a commanding position near Charikar. It is regarded as the site of Alexanderian city (MI, p. 331; MA, p. 87, fn. 4) founded in 329 B. C. at the foot of Paropanisos. See also EI, XXII. 11.

Sanskrit word like Kanthadhāra, which we get by a slight change of one letter, then it obviously refers to Kandahar, but this cannot be regarded as conclusive. Kandahar was a town of great importance from early times, being the central point at which the routes from Herat, Seistan, Ghor, Kabul, and India united. The importance of this place did not escape the notice of the Greek invaders. Arachotos, the capital of Arachosia is believed to have been situated somewhere in the direction of Kandahar. The place must have been known to Indian writers; and there cannot be any doubt that the name Kandahar was derived from a Sanskrit original, and perhaps flowed independently of Gandhāra with which it is usually connected.

A verry correct approach to country and river nomenclatures of Afghanistan lies in Sanskrit words. Two distinct streams of ancient tradition as represented by the Brhat-samhitā and the $V\bar{a}yu$, show acquaintance with the peoples of Afganistan to an extent not known in Vedic and later texts. Afganistan is generally divided into three great river basins, namely, those of the Oxus, the Helmand, and the Kabul.

The basin of the Kabul river is divided from that of the Helmand by the Paghman range, and from that of the Oxus by the Hindu kush and its western prolongation. In the time of Alexander, the Kabul valley or Paropamisadae, as already noticed, was inhabited by independent, warlike mountaineers. Some of these tribes are mentioned in our text, and so if we examine the ancient ethno-geographical tradition of this region we may find the links in the chain of evidence that connected the highlands of the Kabul valley with Āryāvarta in ancient times.

Thus the Lampākas who appear as a people of this division (No. 78) are the Lambatai of Ptolemy³ and the Lampakas of the Mahābhārata.⁴ They occupied the country bounded by the Kabul river on the south and south-east between its two tributaries, the Alingar on the west and the Kunar on the east. The Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang visited the country of Lan-po (Lamphan) the size of which was estimated at 1000 li. In his time it was a tributary to Kapiša.⁵ The Lampākas

¹ MM. p. 156. fn.
2 Dr Bellow says that the natives of Gandhara in quitting their homes on the Indus established themselves on the Helmand and founded a city which survives in Kandahar (The races of Afganistan by Surgeon-Major H. W. Bellow, Thacker Spink and Co., Calcutta, MDCCCLXXX. pp. 21, 23, 61).
3 MT. pp. 105-6; OAGI, p. 50.

⁴ Mbh (B)., vii. 105.42.

⁵ BR, I, p. 90,

are identified with a people called Murandas in the Abhidhānacintā mani and in the Vaijayanti. It is suggested that Lampāka or Laghman was the capital of Sai-Wang (Śaka-Muranda). The people lived in the same region in the time of Abul Fazl, as in the Ain-i-Akbari they are referred to in connection with the Alisang-Alinagar Valley.

To the east of the Lampākas, and to the north of the Kabul river near its confluence with the Indus, perhaps lived the Alimadras who appear as a people of this division (No. 83). The name is a corruption of Arimarddana, a name of Pāṇḍava Arjuna, and plainly survives in the modern Mardan tahsil, which lies to the north of the Kabul river in the Yusufzai subdivision of Peshwar District.

Next to the Lampākas we have reference to the Stanapas (No. 79) and Pidikas (No. 80) followed by other names of Afganistan. As noted before, the text is corrupt here and no two readings are even slightly similar. Perhaps the two words were originally one, subsequently split up into two owing to textual corruption, for the Mahābhārata refers to a people called Stanaposikas of the group of the fierce Mleccas4. This may contain a clue that the Stanapas and Pidikas stand for one name, and that the 'Pidikas' represent a word like Posikā, but as it is unmeaning, the original, judged by the characters, was probably Prāsikas i. e. the people who are armed with spears. 'Stana' is a mistake for Sthana or land, consequently Sthana Prāsikas would seem to be a transposition of Prāsika-sthāna, that is, the land of the people who are armed with spear. If this be the right reading of the name, there is no doubt that it is the same as Parśusthana of Panini (v. 3. 117), the country of Parsus, a warlike tribe of the north or north-west. Zimmer connects the Parsus of Pāṇini with the Parsus of the Rgveda. They were also perhaps one in race with the Parsloi, one of the tribes collectively designated Parapamisadai, and the Parachis mentioned by Babar among the tribes of Afganistan.6

The Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang also visited the country of these people, for his Fu-li-shih-Sa-t'any-na is restored as Urddha sthāna by Cunningham, and Parāchisthāna by Yule, all of which refer to the Kabul district. The pilgrim records that the men were naturally fierce and impetuous. Evidently both Pāṇini and Hiuen

¹ VJN, p 37, v, 25. 2 PHAI, p. 359. 5 AIA, II, p. 406.

⁴ vi. 9. 68. 5 Ved, Ind., I, 504-5. 6 BR, II, p. 285, fn. 8.

⁷ YC, II, pp. 266-68. Sir R. G. Bhandarker rectores the name as Parshusthana (IA.1.22). Supra p. 99, fn.

Tsang refer to the warlike people called Parsus who lived in the Kabul district of Afghanistan. This also agrees with the position of the Jāgudas (No. 81) mentioned next.

In the Mahābhārata¹, the Jagudas are grouped with the Rāmathas and Tanganas, and in the Matsya Purāṇa with other such frontier tribes: Daradorjjagudām ścaiva.²

Hiuen Tsang journeyed north-west from Fa-la-na (Bannu) and crossing mountains and rivers reached the country of Tsao-Ku-t'a which was 7000 li in circuit. Its capital was Ho-si-na i. e. Ghazni. Mention is made of another city of the kingdom called Ho-sa-lo and the river Lo-mo vin-tu. The river is regarded as the same as Helmand and the city Ho-sa-lo has been identified by Cunningham with Guzaristan on the Helmand, just to the west of Ghazni, the Ozola of Ptolemy 4. Tsao-ku-t'a is a transcription of Jāguda which means saffron. In the Narrative we read: "The soil is favourable for the Yo-kin plant (turmeric) and for the King-Kiu (Hingu, asafoetida); this last grows in the valley Lo.ma.in tu."5 One of the chief exports of Afghanistan is asafoetida and on these grounds it may be held that Tsao-ku-t'a and its Sanskrit equivalent Jaguda, speaking territorially, correspond to Ghazni⁷ and the neighbouring parts of Afganistan. Further, Jaghuri to the south of Ghazni in the Kandahar Province bears a likeness to the name Jaguda; the country name originating from saffron (Jaguda) the principal commodity of the country.

The Jaguda country thus embraced a considerable portion of territory to the north of Kandahar, for the Kandahar province extended from Taimani, Hazaristan, and Ghazni on the north to Baluchistan on the south. The Helmand (Etymander) river with its tributaries drains this south-western portion of Afghanistan. Roughly speaking Kandahar formed a part of the Greek Satraphy of Arachosia which "extended from the chain of mountains now called the Suleiman as far southward as Gedrosia (Mekran)". The Zend

¹ iii. 51. 25. 2 121. 46-7. It is said that the Indus flowed through the janapada of Jaguda. 3 YC, II, pp. 264-6,

⁴ BR, II, p. 283, fn. 2; CAGI, p. 46 5 Ibid. 6 IG. V. 57.

The Chinese account of the later part of the 10th century A. D., Ghazni is perhaps referred to as Go-je-nang (IA. XIII. 23).

⁸ MM, p. 156. Others extend the boundaries still farther on the north as far as the western section of the Hindu kush, and on the east the river Indus (MA, p. 88, fn. 1).

name of Arachosia was Haraqaiti or Harahvaiti and its old Persian name was Harauvati all of which are supposed to have been derived from Sanskrit Sarasvatī, the name of Helmand. We have in our list, a name Yasovatī (No. 41) mentioned immediately after the Gandhāras (No. 40), which might have been used as an ancient Sanskrit designation of the Helmand basin². Abul Fazl also writes that the meaning of Hirmand (Helmand) is 'abounding in blessings'; which is a clear approach to the name of Yasovatī³.

The province of Kandahar is bounded on the west by Farrah (Prophthasia of Strabo), which is the northern capital of Seistan, where (Seistan Hāmūn) the Helmand with its tributaries eventually loses itself. Even this far western tract was within the range of early geographical tradition. Strabo refers to Prophthasia, (Farrab) as being within Drangiane 4 corresponding to the province now known as Seistan. Drangiane had another city known as Zaranj, situated between the river Helmand and Zarah, the lake of Seistan. Now, the inhabitants of these places under various disguises of the name such as Drangai, Zarangae, Zarangoi, Zarangaioi and Sarangai⁵ were known to ancient geographers. In Ptolemy's Geography the name Drangiane occurs as the equivalent of Seistan.⁶ In our list of western peoples we get the name Jrigas (No. 15), which plainly refers to Zarangae or Zaranj, The Persian form of the name was Zranka: it occurs in the inscriptions of Darius along with Parthava and Haraiva. The name Sakasthana from which the name Seistan

¹ Indo-Aryan domination in this region in ancient times has left its trace in the geographical nomenclature of the country. Witson says that a variety of ancient designations of which 'Aria' is a component element (Cf. Ariana) are connected with the term Ārya. The Zend name for the country to the west of the Indus was 'Eriene-veejo', that is, the Sanskrit Āryāvarta (Wilson, Ariana, Antiqua, London, pp. 121-22). Cf. also Praskaņva of Puņini, Parikanioi of Herodotus, and mod. Ferghāna (IHQ. XXIX. 14).

The river Sarasvatī (Helmand or Arghandab, Vedic Index, II, p. 437) may have given its name to the country around, and all ancient denominations such as Harauvati of the Persiaus, Arachosia of the Greeks and possibly Tsao-Ku-t's of the Chinese (CAGI, pp. 46 ff.) had their roots in that name. K. Chattopadhyaya says that the Indus was known as Sarasvatī which accounts for the name of Haraxvaiti given to Arachosia lying to the west of Indus (JDL. 1937, XV, p. 42).

3 AlA, II, p. 394.

4 MA, p. 87.

⁵ Ibid 87-88, fn. 7. 6 MT, p 314 and 397.

⁷ SI. 4, L. 16; p. 7, L. 15. Haraiva refers to the people of Harayū (Pāņ, Sārava) the Sarayū of remote times, flowing past Herat (Hari-Rūd of old Persian) their capital city.

was derived 1, was applied later on—the country being known to the Persians and the Indians by the name of Zranka and Jrnga respectively. According to Sir Thomas Holdich, 'Zarangai covers the historic Kaiani of Seistan supposed to be the same as the Kakaya of Sanskrit'.2

Mention is made of another people called Apagas (No. 82) immediately after the Jägudas. Apaga has been interpreted as representing ancient Afganistan³. The separate mention of the Apagas (North) and Aśmakas (Central and Nort-West) in our lists, however, strengthens the view already explained that the Aśvakas or Āśvakāyanas (Aśmaka or Assakenoi) had no connection with the name Avghān. It is pointed out by Dr. Bellow that 'Afghān' merely means 'mountaineer', the source of which is the Armenian Aghvān, and is not strictly speaking the ethnic term of a district race⁵.

Hiuen Tsang's O-po-kien is restored by M. Julien as Avakan, while Cunningham considers that the exact equivalent would be Avaghan⁶. All these names appear to be closest transcripts of Afghan, but the Sanskrit designation Apaga cannot be connected with Afghan. haps the original was a word like 'Ava' or 'Apa-gahana' i.e. down the forest. The word Avagahana might well be contracted into Avaghan (or Abhagana), whence was obtained the Chinese name; and finally into Avagana ultimately yielding to Afghan. Hence it appears that the name Apagas is a mistake for Avagahanas, meaning the people who lived down the hills. This is supported by the evidence of the Brhat-Samhitā where the Avaganas are mentioned several times mostly in conjunction with other foreign tribes. The original name suggested here, presents us with an accurate enough transcript of that form of the Indian designation of Afghanistan, which might have been the basis of all other foreign appellations. The alternative and the most ancient national name of the people of Afghanistan was Paktha, which is mentioned as the name of a people in the Raveda.

¹ DHN1, I, p. 65, fm. 1.

² Gates of India, p. 34. 3 DD, p. 9; Brahmanda Puranz, ch. 49, 54.

⁴ MM, pp. 157-158, fn. Also see supra, pp. 49-51.

⁵ MI, p. 334. A tradition recorded in the Ain-i-Akbari corries the origin of the Afghāns directly back to an eponymous Israelite ancestor Afghan (AIA, II. p. 402).

6 CAGI, pp. 100-103.

⁷ For similar instances see DD, p. v.

⁸ Bream., XI. 61: Colavagaņasitahaņacīnanam. ef. also XVI. 38.

⁹ vii. 18. 7.

They are connected with Pakhthūn in Eastern Afghanistan, the. Paktyi of Herodotus¹. This is regarded as a proof of the existence of the Afghan or Pakht nationality on the basin of the Kophes in the centuries before the Christian era². The name Avagana, a later appellation, being derived from the physical features of the country, so common in the geographical nomenclature of ancient India, seems to be the most suitable geographical expression that can be regarded as synonymous with the whole of Afghanistan.

But Avagana, too, had a restricted application, for its Chinese equivalent *O-po-kien* embraced only the south-eastern portion of Afghanistan, which according to Cunningham was one of the original seats of the Afghan people³. It cannot be said definitely when the name was employed to cover the modern country of Afghanistan.

The first historical mention of Afghans was perhaps made in the year 1024 A.D. when Mahmud of Ghazni made a raid into the mountians inhabited by the Afghanian. But the extensive application, in a political sense, of the term Afghanistan is ascribed to the Durrani chiefs. It became the general designation of the country extending from the Punjab on the east, to Persia on the west, and stretching down from the Amu-Daria on the north to the frontiers of Baluchistan on the south. Within these limits are to be located many other tribes of Indian ethnography. Afghan-Turkistan (northern Afghanistan) consisted of the Khanates of Balkh, Khulm. (Tash-Kurgham) Kunduz, Kataghan (Kata-ghans), Badakshan (Badakshis) and Wakhan4. Of these, Kataghan, Badakshan and Wakhan, now form a separate province, and is simply called Turkistan by the inhabitants. But Turkistan or Tukharistan was not confined merely to this tract; it also covered the other Western Khannates, and the entire country, i. e. the Oxus basin long continued to be known to the Muhammadans as Tukhāristān.

The ethnic name connected with this country (Tukhāristān) is Tukhāra, which is the same as the Tokharoi of classical writers⁵, and Tuṣāra of Sanskrit texts⁶. In our lists we have the forms

¹ The races of Afghanistan by Surgeon-Major H. W. Hellow, Thacker, Spink & Co., Calcutta, MDCCCLXXX, pp. 56-57. 2 MM, pp. 157-58.

³ CAGI, p. 101. Cunningbam says that Kaofu of the Chinese embraced the whole of modern Afghanisthan (Ibid. 20-21).

⁴ Index Geographicus Indicus, by J. F. Baness, Newman, Calcutta, 1881, p. 172-74; Bellow, The races of Afghanistan, Intro; pp. 11-12.

⁵ MT, p. 268. • Cf. Mat. Purana, ch. 121. 45-46.

Tukharas, who appear as a people of this division (No. 73) and Tuşaras a people of the North-West (No. 2; chart No. III). In the Mahābhārata, they are mentioned as Tusaras and are also referred to in the Rā atara igin 2. Dr. Stein says that the statement of Hiuen Tsang about the country and the people makes it certain that the people who were possibly a branch of the Yue-tchi nation had given its name to the Upper Oxus Valley, including Balkh and Badakshan. But in the 'Life' of the Chinese pilgrim, mention is made of Tu-hu-lo, i. e. Tukhara between the Bamian Pass (Fan-yen-na) through which he entered the Kabul valley, and the great snowy mountain which was evidently the western spur of Hindu kush (Caucasus)³, This indicates that the Ghorbund valley was known as Tukhāra. On his return journey the pilgrim left India by the Khawak Pass along the Panjshir valley. He crossed a mountain (Hindu kush) and reached Andarab or Indarab (An-ta-lo-fo-po) in Khoondooz or Khunduz, which was also known to Hiuen Tsang as Tu-ho-lo4. Similar other statements show that the Tukhara country extended from Kunduz to Badakshan⁵ (Po-ta-na) on the east.

No doubt Tukhāra country i. e. Tukhāristān or Turkestan was that country which was inhabited by the Tukhāras of our text, but they need not be regarded as wholly identical with the Turks who had overrun this part of Central Asia⁶; for Hiuen Tsang distinguishes between the two and says that the Tukhāra chiefs were dependent on the Tuh-Kiueh (Turk) tribes⁷. If the Tukhāras appear as a people of the 'North' in our text, the Turuṣkas or Turks are mentioned as a people of the Western Division (No. 14). The name Tārakṣuras under that entry easily resolves into Turuṣkas which is an equivalent of the Turks, the people of Turkistan⁸. The land between the Oxus and the Jaxartes⁹, i. e. ancient Tartary, the

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1 Mbh (B)., ii. 44. 25 2 IV. 166. RT, I, p. 136.
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³ BH, p 52. 4 BH, p. 195.

⁵ BH, p. 197. 6 BR, I, p. 20, fn. 62.

⁷ BR, I, p. 37-38 '

But Turuska of mediaeval inscriptions refers to the Muhammadans of India. Cf. El. XVIII. 112, vs. 8-11.

Jaxartes appears to be a combination of the words Jaj and Araxes of Soythia as N. L. De points out. He further says that the river is the Rass of the Reseada, Rangha of the Avesta, Sits of the Mahabharata and perhaps Gabhasti of the Puranas (IHQ. II. 530-1). It is the Syr-daria of the present times and falls into the sea of Aral.

Transoxania of the Romans is believed to have been invaded by the Turks for the first time in the centuries before the Christian era, which justifies the assumption that the people were known to the Indian writers.

It is suggested that the ancient Iranian name of Bokhara the famous city of Turkistan before its occupation by the Turks was Jemu-Ket, the Sanskrit counterpart of which was Yamakoti¹. But what is the original of the word Bokhara, the name of the country and its city?

Dr. Stein points out that the reading of Tukhāra of the Rajatarangini varies with bhuh kharah i. e. Bukhara. But there is no competent standard authority for the employment of Tukhāra to denote the country to which the name Bokhara was applied. Bokhara or Bukhara as the designation of ancient Sogdiana is also not found in Sanskrit literature. Vambery in his History of Bukhara says, that the Mongol word Bukhar "is even now the word for a Buddhistic 'temple' or 'monastery'". But it is held that Bukhar is not a Mongol word, but merely the transcription of the Sanskrit Vihāra which was borrowed by the Mongols. It is not improbable that the name Bokhara which is roughly equivalent to ancient Sogdiana was derived from a Sanskrit original like Vihāra; and the bhuh Khārāh of the Rājataranginā perhaps presents us with an intermediate stage between the Sanskrit Vihāra and the modern Bokhara. The Tukhāras, therefore, had no connection in the naming of Bokhara, the ethnic counterpart of which might have been a term like Vihāras. In the list of this division mention is made of a people immediately after the Tukhāras, but the name is distorted beyond recognition: this is Bahyatodaras (No. 74). The characters seem to require an original like Vihara-dvara, i. e. the gate of the monastery. It is questionable how far the name represents the people of ancient Vihāra country or Bokhara, but it is difficult to believe that the information underlying this entry referred to any other people but them. The grouping and the bearing of the name, offer grounds on which this conjecture can be based.

Samarkand the chief city of Tartary or Transoxiana in which Sogdiana was situated was known as Marakanda in the time of

¹ Ibid. 527-28. Of Bokhara City of Tartary-Taittirinager of Bhaviqua-Pu.

² RT, I, p. 137, fa.

³ Turkistan, by E. Schuyler, London, 1876, 2nd edition, Vol. 1, p. 368.

Alexander's invasion. It was the capital of the Sogdiana¹, and bore traces of a Sanskrit name. The 'Khand' is an Indian word for a district or province and Samarkhand may be interpreted without any extravagance by Samara-Khanda, 'the war-like province'. Hiven Tsang refers to the king of Sa-mo-kin as possessing strong and brave soldiers who were principally men of Chih-Kia². It is stated that Chih-Kia stands for Chalak, a city near Samarkand, which was "famed for its tall strong men who were much sought after as soldiers". All these referred to the Sanskrit meaning of the word Samara. In our list of this Division we have reference to a people called Carmakhandikas (No. 56). The name is very much distorted and carries no meaning, but it is not improbable that it is a mistake for Samarakhandikas⁴, the inhabitants of Samarkand⁵.

But of all the races of Afghan-Turkistan, the people of the Khan ate of Balkh were perhaps the oldest and the most well-known. The Bālhīkas, appearing under various disguises of the name in the legendary accounts, are located by some scholars somewhere near the Kuru land. But the mention of the people in the Atharvaveda Parišista where they are grouped with Saka, Yavana, Tukhāra, shows that the Vedic Balhīkas are to be located far away in the North. The evidence in favour of this hypothesis is also found in later literature. Kātyāyana (4th century B. C.) in his Vārtika to Pāṇini IV. 2. 99 mentions Bāhlāyana, which he derives from the word Bāhlīlo, on the strength of the example of Pāṇini's derivation of Kāpišāyana from Kāpišī.

¹ MI, p. 40. For names ending in Kand (Kantha), See Agrawals in IHQ. XXIX. pp. 29-30.

² BR, I, p. 33. 3 YC, I, p. 94. 4 MP, p. 314.

⁵ The Carmakhandika of our list may also be amended as Carbikhanda, i. e. Fat land. It is to be noted that other Chinese names of Samarkand stand for the Turkish Semez-Kand meaning 'Fat land' (YC, I, p. 93).

⁶ The Prākrit form of the name, as found in a Taxila inscription is Bahaliena which is mentioned as a city (EI. XIV. 295). In Sanskrit literature the name is given as Vāhlīka or Bāhlīka or Bāhlīka.

Y CH. I, 184; Ved. Ind., II. 62; MP, p. 811.

^{41. 3, 3,} ed., by Boiling and Negelein, p. 351.

Off. the hymn: "Go to the Müjavants or to the Bählikas, further off" (Harvard Oriental Series, Vol. VII, Atharvaveda, p. 260). See Ved. Ind; II. 63, for the views of Roth and Weber which are not accepted by the authors.

¹⁰ The Bählī country is also mentioned in the Arthaéastra of Kauṭilya (1st edn., p. 79 by Shama-Sastri).

In the Kāmaeūtra of Vātsyāyana (3rd A. D.) Bāhlīka is grouped with Strīrājya, which occurs in our list of the North-Western Division. The peculiar custom obtaining in the Bāhlīka country, viz. several young men being married to a single woman as in Strīrājya (Strīrājye ca Bāhlīke vahaboyubāno'ntah purasadharmāņ ekaikasyāh parigrahabhūtāh), appears to be an outlandish custom prevailing in the regions to the west of India. The Jayamangalā Commentary also explains that Bāhlīka was in Uttarāpatha. The Nātyašāstra of Bharata informs us that the Bāhlīkabhāsā was spoken by the Ūdīcyas³. The Meherauli Iron-pillar inscription of about the fourth century A. D. similarly records that they were a people living on the other side of the Indus far to the west4.

Kālidāsa does not refer to the Bāhlīkas, although he mentions the Hūṇas, whom Raghu in course of his expedition met on the banks of the Vaṅkṣū (Oxus)⁵. The reference to filaments of saffron of Vaṅkṣū (v. 67), added with the information obtained from the lexicon of Amara, that saffron is grown in the Bāhlīka country⁶, which is corroborated by Kṣīrasvāmīn, the earlest commentator of

¹ VKS, p. 385. 2 Ibid. 371. 3 xvii 48.

⁴ Some scholars point to the difficulty of connecting the Vählikas of the Meherauli Ins. with Balkh (JRAS. 1897, p. 8; IA. XXII. 174, 192-3; Allan, Catalogue of the coins of the Gupta dynasty in the British Museum, p. XXXVI), Pargiter says that they had already entered India by the 3rd A. D. and were ruling the Vindhyas (Dynastics of the Kalı Age, p. 50). It is also suggested that the different places in India were given the name Bählika, one of which might have been intended in the ins. under review (MT, p. 395). Pählika is also equated with the Baraca of the author of Periplus (Periplus, p. 174). Another view is that the association of Vablikas with Studhu in the ins. only alludes to the foreign origin of the people (HAIB, pp. 206-7). Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar writes that the Valhikas of the Meherauli Pillar Inscription were settled not far from Vishpupada, which on the authority of the Mahabharata, as pointed out by J. C. Ghosh was in the region through which flowed the northernmost part of the Beas (IC. III. 511:18). We have already noted that the Ramayana refers to the existence of a Balbika settlement somewhere between the Beas and the Jumna (Supra p. 90 fn.). For other theories on the subject, see C. Chakravarty, ABORI. 1926-7, p. 174; K. P. Jayaswal, JBORS. XVIII, p. 31; Smith, JRAS, 1897, pp. 15-17; R. C. Mazumdar, Early History of Bengal, Daces University Bulletin, No. 3, 1925, p. 7; IC. I. 518-19; D. C. Siroar, SI. 276. fn. 3.

⁵ iv. 67-68. The reading Sindhu of the passage is plainly a mistake for Vahkan, as the context indicates. See IHQ. XXVI. 118, fn. 3.

⁶ Amarakeia, Okas' edition, p. 110. verse 124.

Amara', clearly shows that the Bāhlīka country bordered on the Oxus.

The Vählikas figure very frequently in the Epics² and Puranic literature, particularly in the Mahābhārata where they are referred to mainly as a great fighting power of the Kuruksetra war. Other notices in particular are of great value, in that, they confirm the antiquity of the Bāhlīka country as the seat of an independent kingdom at some remote date, and prove beyond doubt that the Bāhlīkas were connected with the peoples of the Aryan world in the relations of both peace and war. Ancient tradition connects the Bāhlīkas with the Dhārstakas, a Ksatriya clan who occupied the Bāhlīka country 4. Bahlika-Prātipīya of the Satapatha Brāhmana 5, who is called a king of the Kauravas, is perhaps the same as Mahārāja Bāhlika Prātipeya of the Mahābhārata⁶. A tradition contained in the Rāmāyana even goes to indicate that the Kuru royal family originally migrated from the Bāhlīka country. The passage question7 in states that lla, son of the Prajapati Kardama, who was the king of the Vahli country, gave up Bahlika in favour of his son Sasavindu, and founded a new city Pratisthanapura in the Madhya-desa, where his other son Pururava Aila continued to rule. This links up the Ailas, the progenitor of the Kurus, with the Kardama royal family of Bāhli. Dr. H. C. Roy Chaudhuri says that, Kardama, the name of the ruling family of Vāhlika was obtained from the river of that name in Persia, and concludes that the home of the Kardama kings should be identified with Bāhlīka or Balkh in Iran, and not with any territory in India proper.

- 1 Ibid. Būhlīka deśajam (Bāhlīkam) Yadraghoruttaradigvijaye dudhuburbājinah etc. The Chinese pilgrim Huen Tsang also speaks of saffron grown round about that country (YC, I, p. 124).
- ² In the great Epic, Bahlīka is sometimes confounded with Bāhika. Nīlakantha in his gloss on Mbh., v. 39. 50, makes the same mistake.
 - 3 Of. ii. 27, 22; Parama Vikranto Bahlikan.
 - 4 AIHT, p. 256. 5 xii. 9. 3. 3.
 - 6 v. 23. 9; 149. 27; JRAS. 1910, p. 52.
 - 7 Ram; vii. 103, 7, 21, 22, of. Linga Purana, Ft. 1. ch. 65
- IHQ. IX. 37-39. Kārddama river is identified with the Zarafshan which flows through Bokhara (PHAI, p. 363, fn. 8). Kauţilya refers to Kārdamika pearl and the Commentary runs (AS, p. 76) that Kārdama was in Persia (IC. 1. 251-52). N. L. De points out on the authority of Fausboll that the river Zarafshan which flows a little to the north of Bokhara and Samarkand was the Hāṭaki-nadī of the Bhāgavata and Hiranyavatī of other

In the 'Life' it is stated, that Hinen Tsang was informed by the Sheh of Hwo (Kunduz), that among his possessions was a country called Fo ho-lo bordering northward on the Oxus, the capital of which was called Rājagrha!. The same country is referred to in the 'Narrative' of the pilgrim as Fo-ho, lying to the west of Ho-lin and reaching on the north to the Oxus², the capital of which was the little Rājagrha. Ho-lin is Khulm (50 miles east of Balkh), the name of a country, and also of a tributory of the Oxus which separates Khulm from Balkh on the west. The Chinese name which is an equivalent of Balkh evidently refers to modern Balkh in Afghan-Turkistan, the home of the Bālhīkas.

Balkh³ of the Bictrian Satrapy⁴, one of the oldest cities of the world, was a city of wealth and fame. Strabo says that it was the ornament of all Ariana and the emporium of Asiatic commerce. It stood on the great high ways of communication from east to west, and according to the Zend-avesta it was situated on the border of the gold country in the road of the confluence of nations⁵. Darius made it a satrapy, Alexander passed through it, and Seleucus annexed it to his dominions. When Hiuen Tsang visited Balkh it was still a great centre of Buddhist faith⁶, but after the overthrow of the Sassanid kingdom by the Arabs, the ancient Bactrian satrapy along with the adjoining territories passed under the control of Khorasan, the seat of the Muhammadan power.

Besides Bactria, Strabo refers to another city of Baktriane called Adrapsa which was most probably Kunduz⁷. We have reference to another city of Baktrian Satrapy known as Aornoa⁸. Its location has not been definitely ascertained. Was it Alexandria Arion (Herat)⁹ one of the three citles (Alexandria Arachoton and

texts all of which mean the 'golden river'. The word Zarafahan also means 'scatterer' or 'Distributor' of gold. It was called golden river because is brought fertility to the soil (IHQ II. 531-32).

¹ BH, pp. 47-48. 2 . YO, I, p. 108.

³ MT, p. 269 and 273 There can be no doubt that Balkh was the country to which the name Bactria was assigned by the Greeks (Holdich Gates of India, p 88). For geographical notices of the adjoining regions in Idrisi's itinerary see, p. 271 ff.

4 MI, p. 39.

⁵ Wilson, op. cit. p. 163. 6 BR, I, pp. 44-47.

⁷ MA, p. 90. But Sir Thomas Holdich equates Adraspa with Andarat (Gates of India, p. 90).

⁸ ML p. 39.

Alexandria apud caucasum) which owe their foundation or rebuilding to him? The word Aornos', however, most correctly transliterates Sanskrit Urnas, the name of a people of the NE. division (No. 40).

These settlements make it clear that the races of the far distant Oxus valley formed an integral part of ancient Indian ethnographical tradion. We have in another passage a searching reference to the other peoples of this region:—

Atha Cīna marīiniścaiva Kālikāmiścaiva cūlakān Tuṣārān Varbarākārān Pahlavān Pāradāñcakān Etān janapadāniścakṣuḥ plāvayitvodadhini gatā1.

The river Cakşu is the Ochos of Curtius², and Okos of the Greeks, all referring to the Oxus, which derived its name from its tributary, the Vaksh or Akşu. In the Purānas, it is variously mentioned as Vakṣu, Vamkṣu, Cakṣu and Ikṣu. It is the famous river Amu-Darya, which rises from Lake Victoria (Siri-Kul) in the great Pamir plateau and empties itself into the Aral Sea. The Oxus basin which occupies the whole breadth of Northern Afghanistan, therefore, linked up India with Persia, and Afghanistan with Turkistan, and as such formed a great ethnographic watershed. The passage cited above clearly refers to it.

The Cīnas appear as a people of this division (No. 72) being followed by the Tukhāras and were perhaps living somewhere near the Oxus in Bokhara. In the Mahābhārata they are līnked with the Yavanas and Kāmbojas³. According to one writer, the Cīnas represent the people of modern Gilgit, Astor and Yassan⁴. The mention of Cīna in the Milindá-pañho along with many other old Indian principalities suggests that a country of this name existed in India⁵: they are also frequently mentioned among the retinue of Bhagadatta, king of Prāg-jyotiṣa⁶. Pargiter writes that in the Mahābhārata they are always spoken of with respect and admiration⁷, but according

¹ Mateya Puraņa, 121. 45-46. 2 MI, p. 42. 3 vi. 9. 65.

⁴ NHH, ch. II, p. 15. Atkinson says "the correct name of the principal tribe inhabiting Gilgit, Astor and the Indus valley is Shin or Shing, possibly the Cinas of the Puranas". In the late Buddhist Chronicle the Ārya-manjuśri-mūla-Kalpa, Cina is n entioned in association with Keśmira (AMKLP, p. 88, v. 2). Reference is also made to a country called Mahācīna (v. 8).

⁵ SBE, XXVI. 327-8, 331. 6 Mbb, II. 26 9. 7 MP, p. 319.

to Manu they were Kṣatriyas who became degraded¹. In the $Kath\bar{a}$ -S-Sāgara, prince and princess of Chīna are treated on a footing of equality² with the Indian chiefs, but foreign character of the country of this name is also hinted in the same book³.

Maru in the śloka given above may refer to the great desert country including Merv and Tejen which lies to the north-west of Afghanistan. Pāṇini's Dhanva (IV. 2. 121) and the information furnished by Patanjali and by the Kāšikā indicate that Pāre-Dhanva stood for a far-off desert lying beyond the borders of India4. 'Meru' was possibly derived from a sanskrit word like Marubha i. e. the people of the desert. But Maru.kacchas who appear as a people of the North-Western Division (No. 15) may be plausibly connected with the people of the Indian desert5. It is the Pāraskara of Pāṇini (VI. 1. 157) which Patanjali treats as a desa corresponding to Thara-Pārkara, the great desert of Sindh 'which once denoted the whole of its south-eastern part up to the coast of the Great Rann of Kacch' or Kaccha-Irina6. This offers the clue to the geographical application of the joint name of the Marus and Kacchas, Kaccha (Cutch) being historically connected with Sind Parkar from very early times⁷.

The Cülikas are apparently a variant of the Sülikas who are mentioned as a people of this division (No. 89) and also of the North-West (No. 18); their exact location cannot be determined, but it was certainly somewhere in Turkistan on the Oxus. In one of the passages of the Brhat-Sainhitā the Śūlikas are grouped with the Gāndhāras, and in another with the Vokkāṇas. Tārānath places, Śūlika in the vicinity of Tukhāra; Tukhāra, Śūlika and Vokkāṇa were thus probably a contiguous group of tribal settlements. The Vokkāṇas were the people of Wakhan in the little Pamir plateau, which is watered by the various tributaries of the upper reaches of the Oxus. In the Chinese sources dealing with the rise of the Kushāṇa power, mention is made of Hiu-mi, the

² KSSR, I, p. 407 and 418.

³ Ibid. I, p. 894. Cf. also China-vatani (El. XX. 79-80, line 14).

⁴ IHQ. XXIX. 12-13. 5 But Kern says that the name is Merukucos and not Kacca and that they lived in modern Kaferistan or theresbouts (Kern, Brhat-sainhitā, p. 24). 6 IHQ. XXIX. 16-17. 7 CAGI, p. 347. 8 IX. 21. Cf. IX. 15; XIV. 8 where a different context is implied. 9 XVI. 35.

present Wakhan, Shuang-mi, i. e. Chitral and Kuei-Shuang or Gandhara and others. The Tuṣaras have been noticed, and the Varbaras of the passage and also of our list (No. 70) represent the various rude tribes who lived in the unexplored regions in the lower course of the Oxus near about the trans-Caspian province. The Pallavas were a fierce mlecca people. According to Buhler, Pahlava and its Iranian prototype Pahlav, are corruptions of Parthava, the indigenous name of the Parthians. The word Parthava is regarded as the early Sanskritised form of the name from which Pahlava has been derived. In one of the many curious legends told in the Rāmāyana it is said that the Pahlavas, Yavanas, Sakas, and Kambojas were created from the tail of the cow Kāmadheņu. The Harivamsa refers to them as a degraded people having beards and also as dwelling in forests.

The Parthians lived in Media but enjoyed a brief spell of rule in Kabul and the frontier regions of India in about A. D. 43-44 and thereafter. The most famous of the Indo-Parthian rulers were Mithradates I, Vonones and Gandopharnes. The reference to Pahlava amātya Suvišākha in Rudradāman's inscription shows that by that time (2nd A. D.) the foreigners had been quite well known.

The other people the Paradas are also mentioned in the Mahābhārata in a list of barbarous tribes, and all other allusions indicate that they were mainly a northern to or north-western race or

¹ S. Konow in El. XXI. 258; PHAI, p. 383. For the indentification of Vokkāņa with Hyrkania of Ptolemy's Geography, see MT, pp. 260-62,393.

² Supra p. 105 ff.

³ There is no sufficient ground to hold, that the people of this name known to classical writers are the same as the Varbaras of the text who are clearly placed in the Oxus valley. Dr. B. C. Law (IC. I. 388-89; TAI, p. 92) for instance, refers to the Barbara country of Arthabastra where it may have been used to denote the region round Karachi. Cf. the Barbara janapads of the Ganapatha of Pāṇint (IV. 3. 93), a coastal country with its port Barbarika. Dr. Sircar similarly connects Varbara with Barbaricum (IHQ. XXI. 303, fn. 30).

⁵ SBE, XXV. Intro; p. OXV. Cf. Parthave of the inscriptions of Derius (Si, p. 4, L. 16; p. 7, L. 15).

⁶ Parthavas are mentioned in the Rgveda (vi. 27. 8). According to Ludwig they were the same as the Parthians (Ved. Ind., I. 504).

⁷ OII. 111. 250, • HV, i. 14.17; i. 27. 13, 32, 50.

⁹ Mbh (B)., il. 49. 8. 9; 50. 2-4; 50. 13. 1. Cf. Mbh (B)., vl. 84. 7.

a hill tribe like the Tanganas and Kulindas. Manu refers to them as degraded people, and so does the *Harivamśa* which characterises them as having long hairs 1. Their original home was in the Oxus valley as the passage quoted above shows 2. The Paratas mentioned in the list of the Western Division (No. 13) are the same as the Paradas.

29. AMBARAS

They may be connected with the Ambri who aided by their neighbours Sigambri opposed Alexander with an army of 80,000 foot and 60,000 cavalry. It has been suggested that Ambri must be the Malli³, and formed an important section of the Malavas. In the list under review the Ambaras appear almost in conjunction with the Malavas.

30. MADRAKAS

As noted before the Madras, claimed descent from an eponymous king Madraka, son of Sibi Ausīnara, and were septs of the family of Sivi like the Kaikeyas⁴. They are also grouped with the Yaudheyas as a tribe of the same class: Yaudheyān mānavān rājan Madrakānām gaṇān yudhi⁵. The Madra country was the chief centre of Vedic learning⁶: the epic struggle of the Madra princess with a cruel destiny immortalised the ancient Madras, and their cultural ideas. From the Milinda-panho we learn that King Milinda (Menander) a Graeco-Bactrian king, who became a convert to Buddhism, was ruling over the Madda country with Sāgala as his capital⁷ which, according to a Buddhist lexicon, was one of the twenty ancient cities⁸.

The Brāhmanical name of the Madra capital was Śākala mentioned by Pāṇini as Sānkala in the $S_{\bar{u}}tra$ IV. 2. 75. In the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ we read: Tatah Śākala mabhyetya $Madr\bar{a}n\bar{a}nnputa$ bhedanam. Śākala or Sāgala has been rightly identified by Fleet with the modern Sialkot. The river Irāvatī or Rāvi flowed through the eastern

¹ HV, i. 14. 17. 2 CII. I. 25. Pargiter places the Paradae in the North-West (AIHT, p 268). Dr. D. C. Sircar writes that the Paradae or Parthians lived in the Khorasan region (IHQ, XXI. 803, fn). For the Palidae of Asokan inscriptions, see CII. I. 25; PHAI, p. 259. 3 MI, p. 324.

⁴ Supra p. 91. 5 Mbh (B)., vii. 137. 25; Cf, ii. 50. 14.

⁶ Sat. Br., iii. 7. 1; SBE, XV. 132. See H. C. Roy in JASB. XVIII, 1932, p. 258. 7 SBE, XXXV. 6. 8 See supra p. 41 fa. 11.

⁹ Mbh., ii. 32, 14. Cf. KSSR. I, p. 406.

portion of the Punjab¹, particularly the district around Sialkot² in the Doab between the Chenab and Ravi rivers, but it possibly comprised even a portion of the country between the Jhelum and the Chenab rivers, and thus abutted on Kaikeya on the west. Like the Kurus, the northern branch of the Madras was called Uttara Madras, who are plausibly connected with the Kambojas and other people of Iranian extraction⁴. Similarly Pāṇini mentions two divisions of the Madra country, Pūrva and Aparadiśo' Madrānam⁵. People bearing the tribal name Madra are known to have lived near about the Gorakhpur district⁶.

As one of the republication states existing on the western frontier of the Gupta empire the Madrakas are mentioned in the Pillar inscription of Allahabad. In the early part of the sixth century A. D. the Madra country passed under the rule of the Hūṇa conqueror Mihirakula (c. 515-535 A. D.) who ruled from Sialkot. The people continued to flourish as one of the powers of the Punjab, even upto the time of the Pala king Dharmapāla in the 9th century A. D.

Epic traditions, however, indicate that the Punjab was the home of many other tribes besides the Madras. Thus the people living in the country watered by the river Sindhu and its tributaries, i. e., the Punjab are also designated as $V_{\bar{a}h}$ in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ and stigmatised as a filthy people:

Pańcānām Sindhuşaṣṭhānām nadīnām Ye'ntarāśritāḥVāhīkān parivarjjayet.

- Mbh., viii. 44. 17. The Deeg a stream flowing through Sia'kot district, locally called Dyokā, is referred to in the Nilmata Purāna as a river of the Madra country (B. C. Law, Geog. Essays, p. 92). It was also known to Pāṇini and according to Patañjali, $S\bar{a}li$ rice grew on its bank (Agrawala in IHQ. XXIX. 11).
- * CH. 1.549. 4 Alt. Brā; viii. 14. See N. L. De in IHQ. II. 131, who connects them with Media or 'Mad' and its division Azerbijan which resolves into Airyana-vija (Aryan seed) from its Āvestan name Āryavaijam.
- 5 VII. 3. 13; IV. 2. 108. Cf. Madrakāra as a constituent element of the Sālva-janapada (Supra p. 95 fn 2). It has been pointed out that the name signifying warrior-troops of the Madras owed its origin to the eventful marriage of the Madra princes Sāvitrī, with the Sālva Prince Satyavān (IHQ. XXIX. 20).
 - 6 C 11, III. 66.
- viii. 44. 7. In another passage the people of the Punjab seem to have been collectively called Āraţṭas or Bābīkas (viii. 44. 40 & vs. 10). In the Bārhaspatya Arthasāstra, Āraṭṭa is grouped with Bāhlīka, which is obviously a mistake for Bāhīka (F. W. Thomas, op. cit. p. 21, Sātra No. 100).

It is to be noted that in the $K\bar{a}mas\bar{u}tra$ of Vatsyayana (3rd century A. D.) the people of 'Sindhuṣaṣṭhānān' ca nadīnāmantarālīyā' are said to have been fond of filthy habit in sexual matters. In the Jayamangalā Commentary of Yasodhara, 'Sindhuṣaṣṭha' is explained as the country of Vipāsā etc. i. e., the Punjab¹. Evidently, the people meant by Vātsyāyana in his $S\bar{u}tra$ No. 25 are the same as the Vāhīkas of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$. Consequently when the Vāhīkas are described in $S\bar{u}tra$ No. 25, they were certainly not the same as the Vāhlīkas, who are mentioned in the $S\bar{u}tras$ immediately preceding (Nos. 22-24)² as possessing different characteristics³, The separate identity of the two names is not uniformly maintained in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ and sometimes the two are confused. Thus the passage of $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ that the Bāhlīkas are the drege of the earth refer to the Vābīkas⁴.

But Śākala was also the old capital of a powerful tribe called Takkas, whose country was known to Hiuen Tsang as Tse-Kia, and Cunningham quotes Hemacandra to show that the Bāhīkas were the same as the Takkas⁵. Śākala as a Vāhīka-grāma is also mentioned by Patañjali.⁶ Indeed, Vāhīka, according to the notices made of it in the Mahābhārata, stood for the whole of the Punjab. The Vāhīka-grāmas of Śākala and Pātanaprastha, as referred to in the grammatical works, imply the inclusion of Madra-janapada in the Vāhīka

- 1 VKS, pp. 370-371. Cf. Mbh; viii. 44. 32
 Chandrabhāgā Vitastā ca sindhu ṣaṣthā vahirgireḥ
 Ārattā nāma te deśā naṣta dharmān tān vrajet.
- a Thid
- 3 This evidence is sufficiently clear and goes to show that the Vahīkas and the Vāhlīkas were two different peoples. So when Yādavaprakāša equates Vāhīka with Vāhlīka he is not correct. His statement that Tarka included Vāhīka (VJN, p. 37 v. 27) is endorsed by Hemacandra who equates Takka with Vāhīka, and the latter is clearly distinguished from Vāhlīka, the alternative form of Vālhīka (Abhidhāna, p. 382, 383). Vāhlīka and Bālhika is also distinguished by Rājašekhara (Kāvya, p. 8) who similarly refers to Takka and Valhīka separately (Kāvya, p. 51, 94). As Takka denoted the country round Sialkot which according to the evidence of the Sanskrit Epic was also known as Bāhīka, the Takka-Bāhīka country is not to be confused with Vālhīka.
 - 4 V. 39. 80. 5 OAGI, pp. 170-171.
- ⁶ II. 294. ⁷ Patañjai, II. 298; IO. VI. 128-86. Pātanaprastha is the same as Palthan or Pathānkoṭ situated at the entrance of the Kāngrā valley.

country. The janapada of Usinara and also Kekaya constituted the other two divisions of the far-flung Vāhika country.

Like the Vāhīkas, the Madras are represented as a despicable people in the later books of the Mahābhārata and are stigmatised as base, impure and contemptible². "Amongst the Madrakas all acts of friendship are lost³." And so it is said: Nāpi vairam na sauhārddam Madrakena samācaret⁴. Even the Rūrataranginā records similar views⁵.

32. PAURAVAS

They were a famous people of the Vedic Age who lived on the banks of the Hydaspes, from which a section of them moved eastward⁶. Strabo says that the country of Poros which lay between Hydaspes and Akesines contained about 300 cities⁷. The Pauravas are also connected with the Porouaroi mentioned by Ptolemy⁸.

33. DANDAPINGALAKAS

This and the following few names may be treated as forming a group assignable to the Himalayan hill-states of the Punjab. The Kohalas (No. 36) are evidently the Kohils, a Kulu tribe who had given their name to the Kulu valley of the Kangra district. Kohil or Kolī (Kulu) as a territorial name denotes the Kulu subdivision which comprises the tahsils of Kulu and Sarāj and the mid-Himālayan cantons of Lāhul and Spiti. The Māṇahalas (No. 34) were presumably another people allied to the Kohalas or Kolis, whose name survives in the Lāhul taluk of the Kulu valley. The Kulu valley is bounded on the south-west by the State of Maṇḍi, which lies in the upper reaches of the Beas. Maṇḍi is the same as Maṇḍamati of the Yavadi-gaṇa of Pāṇini¹o. The people of Maṇḍi are possibly referred to as Mānḍavyas (No. 38) as the grouping

³ Agrawala in IHQ. XXIX. 17. It may be noted that in the Gopatha Brāhmaņa (II. 9) the Uśinaras are connected with the Śavasas. Dr. Agrawala writes that the Śavasas were the people of Cibha comprising Punch, Rajauri, and Bhimbhar.

² Mbh; viii. 40. 21 ff. 3 Mbh; viii. 40. 28. 4 Mbh; viii. 40. 28 and 41,

⁵ VIII. 1531, RT. II. p. 120. For a paper on the Madras see H. C. Rey, in JASB, XVIII. 1922, p. 257 and ff. For the Malavas (No. 51), see S. B. Chaudhuri in IHQ. XXIV. 171 ff (Sept. 1948).

6 Ved. Ind., II. 12. 95.

⁷ MA, p. 35. 8 MT, p. 164. of. Mbh (B); vi. 50, 48.

⁹ Glossary, II. pp. 553 ff.

¹⁰ VIII. 2. 9.

indicates. On the south, Mandi adjoins Suket, which lies along the north bank of the Sutlej river, the river separating Suket from the Simla Hill States. Suket is written as Seokot in earlier records. The Satakas (No. 37) who form another section of this group in the list, plainly refer to Seokot by a slight transposition of one letter.

Having regard to the nature of entries, and the locality indicated by the names which occur after the Dandapingalakas, it is reasonable to assume, that the Dandapingalakas were closely allied to the people of the Kulu valley. But the Kulu valley was in a geographical position the same to which the name Kulūta was applied in ancient times. In the Ganapātha, the name occurs as Kuluna¹, the chief city Nagara is included in the Katryādi-gana?. The capitals of the country Nagar and Sultanpur were situated on the various tributaries of the Beas³. Numismatic evidence, namely, similarity of the symbols of coins show that they were the neighbours of the Kunindas4. All these indicate that the Kulutas occupied the Kulu valley of the Kangra district. Hiuen Tsang's estimate that the size of Kiu-lo-to was 3000 li⁵ suggests the application of the name to an extensive area stretching as fas as the Upper Yamuna on the east, and the inclusion of the little principalities of Suket and Mandi⁶. The pilgrim further observed that the country was very near the snowy mountains, it had a great quantity of medicinal herbs: "Gold, silver, and copper are found here in fine drops (crystals) and native copper."7

39. BHŪTAPURA

Bhota, as Lassen says on the authority of an inscription, was the name of Tibet*. A Jaina work refers to Bhota-desa indicating a

¹ Pan, IV. 2. 133; IV. 3 93. ² IV. 2. 95. ³ CAGI, p. 163.

⁴ Coins of the Kulūtas assigned to the first-second centuries A. D., bear the legend: $R\bar{a}j\bar{n}a$ Kulūtasya Vīrayašasya (CH. I. 529; CCAI, p. C.; IHQ. XXVII. 206.

5 YC, 1, p. 298.

⁶ South Indian inscriptions refer to a Kulūta country in the south (EI. XVIII. 53, vs. 68-72), which seems to have been situated near about Vengī and Utkala (EI. XXV. 244 and fn.).

BR, I. p. 177. It is now known that great mineral wealth exists in Kulu. In the tract known as Wazirī Rüpti, veins of silver, copper and lead have been discovered and so also in the valley of the Upper Beas, where traces of a very pure white crystal have been met with (See IG. VII. 1886 Edn., pp. 337-38). For the MĀŅĀBALAS (No. 34) see supra p 118; HŪŅĀS (No. 35) see S. B. Choudhuri in IHQ. XXVI. 118; KOHALAS (No. 36), SĀTĀKAS (No. 37) and MĀŅĀAVYĀS (No. 38) see above.

extended from Kasmir to Kāmarūpa². In an inscription of Lhāsa dated in 822 A. D., the native Tibetan name for the country has been given as 'Bod', which responds to T'ufan by which Tibet was called in the Chinese annals. A later name given to Tibet was T'u-pot'e which also represents Bod.³ The word Bod' was corrupted by the Indian writers into Bhot, giving rise to the name Bhotiya or Bhuta, applied to the border tribes living between India and Tibet. Stein observes that the Bhauṭṭas of Rāiataraṅginī refer to the 'population of Tibetan descent, genarally inhabiting the regions immediately to the E. and NE, of Kasmir, i. e. the modern mountain districts of Drās, Ladākh, and perhaps also Skardo.'' From other notices it is ascertained that the Zoji-lā Pass on the high road to Drās and Ladākh was the 'ethnographic water-shed hetween Kasmir and the territory of the Bhauṭṭas'.⁵

42. HEMATALAS

The western Himalayan range was variously designated by the classical writers as Emoda, Emodoi, and Hemodes all desived from the Sanskrit Haimavata, meaning 'snowy'6. Hematala is the same as Haimatala, and refers to those people who lived at the foot of the snowy mountains. The country of these people as told in the 'Life' was known to Hiuen Tsang as Hi-mo-ta-lo (Himatala) which he reached by travelling 300 li eastward from Mung Kien⁷ (Tālikhan). This makes Himatala correspond to Tishkhan or Kilah Afghan in Badakshan. Tishkhan lies on the high road from Koondooz to Fyzabad, and is situated on the northern bank of the Kokeha river to the east of Talikhan as recorded. It was thus situated at the foot of the Hindu Kush.* Indian tradition thus accords with Chinese evidence regarding the existence of a people whose ethnic or country name was derived from the physical features of a country nestling on the foot of the Hindu kush (Himalaya).

¹ IA. XI. 247. Ptolemy's Byatai is equated with Skt. Bhautta, Tibetan Bod, i. e. central Tibet (IHQ. XXIV. 214).

2 DD, p. 33.

³ NHH, ch. III, pp. 17-18, ch. II, pp. 18-19. 4 RT, p. 47, fn.

⁵ For GANDHĀRAS (No. 40) see supra p, 91, fn 5, and YASOVATĪ (No. 41) see supra p. 103.

6 MA, p. 16, fn. 1 and p. 35, fn. 2.

⁷ BH, p, 106 fn. ⁸ YC, II, pp. 275-76; BR, I, p. 42, fn. 139; II, p. 290.

The pilgrim got the impression that the people were of violent and hasty disposition and lacked the sense of righteousness and virtue. Their bearing and appearance contained hardly any noble trait: in the opinion of the traveller, their dress, manners and customs all resembled those of the Turks. He says that the people were clothes of wool and skin and lived in tents made of felt, leading practically a nomadic life. A peculiar custom among them was, that their wives used to wear upon their head-dress a wooden horn about three feet or so in length¹.

46 YAUDHEYAS

They were a famous gaṇa community and were connected with many other well-known tribes of the Punjab ² The coin moulds of the Yaudheyas, assigned to the second century B. C with the legend Yaudheyānāni Bahudhānyake connect them with Rohtak, and they along with the Agreyas and Sibis and their early associates the Arjunāyanas seem to have lived in one compact area in the eastern Punjab The suggestion that the Yaudheys were a confederate tribe of three republics, the other constituent parts being the Arjunāyanas and the Kunindas, is not sūpported by adequate evidence. But it cannot be ignored that the Yaudheyas are frequently noticed in close association with one or more tribes in coins.

Sometime later, the Yaudheyas, or a branch of them, seem to have moved to Rajputana where they ruled as a political power, as is indicated in the inscription of Rudradaman. In the third century A D they also lived in the Bharatpur state. The reference to them in the Allahabad inscription along with their early associates, presumably points to the same locality, but during the same period, i. e in the third and the early fourth century A, D, they also lived in the Kangra valley as close associates of the Kunindas. The striking similarities in the motifs of the coins of the two tribes indicate an integrated organisation of the two communities, which might have even led to the absorption of the Kaunindas in the organisation of the the more powerful Yaudheyas 6. The evidence

BR, II, p. 290. For the RĀJANYAS (No. 43) Sec Supra p 94 fn 3 The KHACARAS (No. 44) and the GAVYAS (No. 45) cannot be identified.

² See Supra pp. 93-94. 3 IHQ, XXVII. 201. 4 NHIP, VI, 32, 5 IHQ, XXVII. 208 209. 6 Ibid. pp. 206-208.

of the post-kushāṇa coins indicates that after the overthrow of the Kushāṇas, the Yaudheyas were ruling as an independent power over the entire country extending from the Sutlej to the Yamunā and particularly in the chakrata tahsil of the Dehra-Dun district.²

58 & 59. SINDHU-SAUVĪRA

The two names are combined in a sing'e appellation in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata^3$. In another passage⁴ Jayadratha is described as the king of both Sindhu and Sauvira: Sauvīrān saha Sindhuviḥ (v. I2), and there may not be many passages in the epic which tend to show a division. The two names forming an identical pair appear much in the same way in other texts too,⁵ and also in the inscription of Rudradāman. The joint application of the two names comprehended the whole of modern Sind, including a portion of the coastal regions of South Rajputana, the latter country 'at the head of the gulf of Khambay' being equivalent to Sauvira in particular⁶. In the time of the author of the Periplus (c. 80 A. D.), the capital of this region (scythia), i. e. of lower Sind was Minnagara idendified with Thatha, and its chief trading post was Barbaricum⁷.

But Sindhu-Sauvīra when distinguished, as is found in our text and also in the aphorisms of Pāṇini⁸, in the Arthaśāstra⁹, Harṣa-carita¹⁰

¹ NHIP, VI. 29, 142. 2 Journal of the Numismatic Society of India, Vol. II, 1940, pp. 109-110. The DĀSAMEYAS (No. 47) seem to have been a Punjab tribe (MP, p. 380), the SYĀMĀKAS (No. 48) were the people of Sogdiana The KṢEMADRŪRTAS (No. 49) were a fabulous people. For the BĀLHĪKAS (No. 50) see supra pp. 108 ff., and ĀBHĪRAS (No. 51) see supra pp. 45-46. A place called Kālodaka (No. 52) is mentioned in the Mahābhārata (xiiii. 25. 60). For the APARĀNTAS (No. 53) supra pp. 55—56; SŪDRAS (No. 54) see supra p 46; PAHLAVAS (No. 55) see supra p. 114; CARMAKHAŅŅ IKAS (No. 56) see supra p. 108; YAVANAS (No. 57) see the author's article in IHQ. XXVI. 118ff,

³ v. 19. 9; vi. 51. 4. Cf. Bhisma Parva liet vl. 9. 51 ff; viii 40. 41.

⁴ iii. 266. 8. 5 SBE, XIV. 148. A Jaina tradition of a very remote period even refere to Vibhayam as the capital of Sindhu-Sovīrā (IA. XX. 375). 6 Rapson, Ancient India, p. 168; CAGI, pp. 569-71. Cf. Bhāgavata Purāna (i. 10. 35, iii. 1. 21 ff.) which places Sauvīra contiguous to Ānarta and Saurāgtra. 7 CAGI, pp. 330ff.

s IV. 3. 93 and IV. 2. 76.

9 AS, p. 40. In the Barhaepatya Arthasaetra also Sindhu and Sauvīra countries are separately mentioned (F. W. Thomas, op. cit. p. 21 Satra Nos. 103 & 104). In the Arthasaetra the reference is to Souvīra only.

10 Op. cit. p. 101 & 194.

and Kathā-S-Sāgara¹, carried a different geographical meaning. The Sauviras were an ancient people but in the Vedic Sūtra texts, they are referred to as an impure people⁸. The Buddhist texts mention Roruva (modern is ori in Upper Sind) as the capital of Sauvīra⁴, and in one text, the Sauvīra country is stated to have been one of the seven political divisions of India5. Mention is also made of the Sauvīra city of Dāttāmitri6, presumably named after Demetrios or Dāttāmitra of the Mahābhārata?. Modern Sukkur in Sind on the Indus, opposite Rori, is mentioned by Panini as Śarkarā, a city of the Sauvīras⁸. Notices given of the Sibarae by Pliny show that the people lived near about the confluence of the Indus with Alboruni clearly states that Sauvīra other rivers of the Punjab'. corresponded to Multan and Jahravar to the east of the Iudus 10. These indications referring to upper Sind as the Sauvīra country possibly furnished the basis for the grouping Sindhu-Sauvira, 11 but it was obviously different from Sovira of Milinda.pañho 12 which stood for a littoral portion of Sind-Rajputana 13.

Sindhu as a janapada, possibly stood for the Sind-Sāgar Doab, the region between the Jhelum and the Indus, but the wider application of the name related to the lower valley of the Indus i. e. modern Sind which had a homogenous geographical unity. But Hinen Tsang's description of the kingdom of Sin-tu (Sindhu), and of its capital which is taken to be another name for modern Alor 14, the chief city of Upper Sind, along with his mention of A-tien-p'o-chihlo, Pi-to-shih-lo and A-fan tu 15 which embraced considerable portions of modern Sind but distinguished from Sin-tu, shows that the geographical application of the term Sind in the days of Hiuen Tsang, was restricted to the upper portion of the country. Other incidental notices in the pilgrim's account indicate that Mou-lo-san-pu-lu

¹ In the Kathā-S-Sāgara (KS-R, I, p. 151, 11, p. 586; mention is made only of Sindhu, and so also in the Kāmasūtra a work of the 3rd century A. D. (VKS, p. 308).

2 Cf. Pan. IV. 1. 148 and the Jaina Upānga (supra p. 30, fn 2).

3 ABORI, XXIX. 142.

⁴ Cf. Jātaka No. 424, CJ, III p. 280. 5 Supra p. 49, fn. 10.

⁶ PHAI, p. 319. 7 DD, p. 183. 8 IHQ. XXIX. 15 and 31.

⁹ MM. p. 153. 10 AI, I. 300; PHAI, pp. 524-26.

¹¹ DD, p. 183. 12 SBE, XXXVI. 269. 13 The lexicographers Hemacandra and Yadavaprakasa identify Sauvīra with Kumāleka (Abhidhana, p. 383; VJN, p. 37, v. 28. Cf. also Haimakoşa quoted by Dr. B. C. Law in TAI, p. 345), but the latter country is not mentioned in ordinary Indian literature. 14 YC, II, pp. 252-53. 15 Ibid. 258-61.

(Multan and Sauvira?), which he reached proceeding eastward from Sin-tu (Sind) and crossing the Sindhu river 1, was on the east side of the Indus, and consequently Sindhu was to its west. Dr. H. C. Roy Chaudhuri quotes the commentator of Kāmasūtra of Vātsyāyana to prove this location². Cunninghan, however, gives convincing reason to believe that Sehwan a place of great antiquity to the west of the Indus in Central Sind, was called Saindhavasthana or Sindhsthan, which points to the Sanskrit name of the country The Greek name Sindomana, obviously refers to some such word meaning the abode of Saindhavas³ Middle-Sind or Hiuen Tsang's Ofancha presumably represented Sindhu-desa though Hiuen Tsang employs a different name, whose Sanskrit equivalent Avanda, cannot be traced either to Aparanta or Avanti. The truth is that the whole of the modern Sind was not outside the former geographical limits of Sındhu-deśa; it was perhaps equivalent to it: Hiuen Tsang simply does not represent the traditional standpoint of ancient Indian geography

60 SATADRUHAS

This refers to the She-to-t'u lu or Satadru of Hiuen Tsang⁵, teh position of which is fixed by the recorded distance of 700 li between Kulūta and She-to-t'u-lu on the one hand, and the estimated distance of 1800 li between the latter and Bairat on the other⁶. This points to the famous old city of Sirhind⁷ as the capital of the Satadruha country, which was bounded on the west and north by the river Sutlej. The people of Sirhind are the Sairindhas of our text.

61. KULINDAS

They are mentioned in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}r_{a}ta$ mostly in association with other Himalayan tribes Of a Kulinda prince it is said that he lives

¹ BR, II, p. 274.

Although the statement of the Commentator is clear (PHAI, p. 524) it is difficult to accept the position that Sindhu was confined merely to the west side of the Indus and that we cannot regard this name as covering the valley to the east Such assertions refer to the political condition of a particular age. For instance, in Kosmas Indikoplaustes (MA, p. 161) it is written that Sindhu is the frontier ocuntry of India for the river Indus separates Persia from India. Here Sindhu is confined to the eastern side of the river.

3 CAGI, pp 304-306

4 Ibid. 301.

⁵ BH, p. 77. 6 Supra p. 32. Y CAGI, pp. 165 ff.; YC, I p. 299.

constantly in mountains (Pravataväsanityah)1. The ethnic name may have been obtained from the river Kālindī or the Yamuna. The people settled on upper reaches in the region of the lofty mountains where the river takes its rise. This was the country of the Kylindrine of Ptolemy², and is not to be confused with the people of Kulu valley3 who are separately mentioned. To this people is attributed the coins which bear the legend Kunimdasa which is a good transcript of Kuninda. These coins which can be dated to a period about the end of the first century B. C. when the Kunindas were apparently living under a monarchical organisation4, constitute the earliest reference to their settlement. No doubt Kuninda⁵ is a mere variant of Kulinda, for numismatic evidence shows that the narrow strip of land at the foot of the Siwalik hills between the Jumna and the Sutlej, and the territory between the upper courses of the Beas and Sutley was the home of the people. But the tribe possibly extended further east as far as Nepal along the southern slopes of the Himalayas and occupied the Almora Hills. To one such branch of the people is to be attributed the coins found in the Almora District. The Mahābhārata knows a branch of them called Apara Kulinda¹⁰, and even refers to "all the countries of Kulinda".

The Kunindas like the Yaudheyas submitted to the rule of the Kushāṇas and regained their independence by overthrowing the Kushāna power. It is highly probable that sometime before the rise of the Guptas, the Kunindas merged into the larger body of the Yaudheyas¹¹.

An important notice relating to the Kulindas deserves attention. In a remarkable passage of the Great Epic we have a reference to the lumps of $Paip\bar{\imath}lika$ gold sent by the northern tribes to King Yudhisthira. The tribes so mentioned are stated to have lived on

¹ Mbh., iii. 264. 8. 2 MT, p. 110. 3 MP, p. 316. Cunningham says that they are the modern Kunets of the Kulu valley.

⁴ CCAI, p. CI. Smith Catalogue of the coins in the Indian Museum, p. 161. Cf Röjñah Kuṇimdasa Amoghabhūtisa (P. Gupta in IHQ. XXVII. 204).

⁵ In our list of the NE. Division which is a mistake for the North, mention is made of the Kaunindas (No. 18), which is a variant of the Kunindas, and so refer to the Kulindas. The Kulindas of Ptolemy and literature are found to be in the same country as the Kunindas of coins.

⁶ Ita ancient name was Sapādalakņa (IA. X. 334, v. 11). It was corrupted into Prākrit Savālikha and thence into Sivalika or Slwalik.

⁷ COAI, p. CIII.

[•] MP, p. 316.

⁹ OH. I. 529

^{1 ·} H. 25. 4.

both sides of of the river Sailoda¹, and among them mention is made of the Kulindas and other Himalayan tribes:

Khaśā Ekāsanā 'yarhāh pradarā Dīrghavenabah Pāradāśca Kulindāśca Tanganāh Paratanganāh Tadvai pipīlikam nāma uddhṛtam yat pipīlikaih.

Here is perhaps an allusion to the burrows of the miners in the the Tibetan gold-fields. Prof. Schiern writes that the gold-digging ants of antiquity are no other than the Tibetan miners³. Local circumstances, namely the piercing cold for which the miners are usually dressed in furs, the physical features of the Tibetans which resemble 'incredibly to apes', and their extraordinary habits, gave rise to the notion that they were animals⁴. The subterranean dwellings of the diggers of gold, whose tents are always pitched in "pits some seven or eight feet below the surface of the ground so as to keep out of the wind", added to the active habits of miners, and suggested the idea of ants in particular.

Sarthol Tibet bore the characteristic name for gold. All available 'Sar', being the Tibetan name country,' information regarding the features of the gold-digging fields Tibet which contained rich correspond to the lofty plateau of were mines, the most important of which Nari-Khorsum is a district of Tibet fields of Nari-Khorsum⁵.

DEPIC accounts connect the river with Uttara Kuru and Meru (DD, p. 172). According to the Matsya Purāņa, the river Sailodakā rises at Mt. Aruna which is west-Kailāsa (MP, p. 351). L. Petech writes on the authority of Herrmann that the tale of the gold-digging ants of Asia, as mentioned by Herodotos and later Greek travellers Nearchus and Megasthenes, was based on the knowledge of gold-washings in Ladakh and Baltisan (IHQ XXIV. 213). Cf. also S. Chattopadhyaya who says that the gold producing desert of India is a myth (IHQ. XXVI, 25, 114).

² ii, 52, 3.4. Cf. vs. 13.14. 3 IA. IV, 225 ff.

⁴ It has been noticed that the dogs of Tibet (IA. IV. 225) are very big in size and had formidable strength. It is quite conceivable that these giant dogs of Tibet should be confounded with their masters. In Chinese books, description is given of the kingdom of dogs where men have the bodies of dogs (E. Schuyler, Turkistan, Vol. I, p. 409). But the Tibetans were living very close to India, and so names dwelling upon physical ugliness such as Aivamukhas (No. 18), Svamukhas (No. 19), Dirghakesas (No. 20), Cipitanāsikas (No. 21) which ocur in this division may contain a reference to them.

⁵ In Narl-Khorsum the most important field was Thok-Jolung. Many other gold-fields have been noticed (IA. IV. 228).

which lies to the north of Kumaon and Garhwal in the trans-Himalayan region of the Sutlej 1. This apparently was the country meant by Hiuen Tsang in his Su-fa-la-na-Kiu-ta-lo or Suvarnagotra. He placed the country on the frontier of Brahmapura, and the boundaries indicated were the Fan Kingdom, i. e., Tu-fan (Tibet) on the east and the kingdom of Khotan (Yu-tien) on the north. It is expressly stated: "From this country comes a superior sort of gold, and hence the name''2. The gold-country of Hiuen. Tsang existing to the west of Tibet was evidently the Nari Khorsum Province of Tibet3. The same country may have been intended in the mention of Suvarnabhumi which occurs in our list of the North-Eastern Division (No. 28), which is a mistake for the 'North' already explained 4. Two names immediately following Suvarnabhūmi in that list, namely, Vasuvana (No. 29) and Devasthala (No. 30) are likely to go together. Their position cannot be satisfactorily determined, but the indications are that they refer to some half mythical region of western Tibet which was a 'terra incognita' of Ancient Indian Geography

It is, however, clear from the discussion made above that the Kulindas of the Mahābhārata were one of the miners of the gold fields of Tibet.

¹ Atkinson writes (NHH, Ch. III, p. 16), "Nari is celebrated for its mines of gold and is bounded on the north by Khotan and on the east by Tibet proper".

2 BR, I, p. 199.

as the country of the "eastern women". For ages a woman has been the ruler and so it is called the kingdom of the women (Ibid). Other Chinese writers also corroborated the statement of Hinen Tsang. It is stated that there was a tribe in Eastern Tibet known as the Nv-wang because they were ruled by a woman. They were also known as Tung-Nu or Eastern NU in Tang history to distinguish them from a similar tribe in the west (NHH, ch. III, pp. 16-17). The hairy-horned Kankas who according to the Mahābhārata brought presents to Yudhisthira (supra p. 53) were the people of eastern Tibet (IA. IV. 231). They are referred to in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa as possessing the Kingdom of women. A Strī-rūjya is also mentiolned by Vātsyāyana (VKS, pp. 308, 371, 385) and is referred to in the Rūjataranginī (IV. 173, RT, p. 138). Indian traditions regarding an Amazonian kingdom receive support from Hiuen Tsang's account.

⁴ This place may have been meant by Kautilya, when he refers to Svarna-bhāmi as a country, where a variety of Tailaparnika (AS. p. 80) were found. It will be erroneous to connect it with Suvarnabhūmi or Burma (IC I. 250-61).

The Khaśas were another people of this region who traded in gold dust with the ancient miners of Thok-Jalung in Tibet. But the name Khaśa is of far too wide significance to be that of a single tribe. In many passages of the Mahābhārata they are generally mentioned as a half-civilized tribe living outside India. In the Harivamśa they are described as Mlecchas, and in the work of Manu they are referred to as a fallen warrior class. Pliny refers to the Cesi and Cetriboni who were hill tribes and lived between the Indus and the Iomanes. If the Cesi of Pliny were the Khaśas, they are to be assigned to a country far to the west of Tibet. Ptolemy's Kasia, may be connected with Kāshgar, and the outcome of other enquiries go to prove the association of this tribe with a wider region. The people may have left their name in Kāshgar, Kashkāra, the Hindu Kush, Kasmir and extended in the hills from Kasmir to Nepal. 4

With Kasmir they were closely associated in the early period forming the principal inhabitants of that country, and lived in the region "comprising the valleys lying immediately to the south and west of Pīr Pantsāl range, between the middle course of the Vitastā on the west and Kāṣṭavāṭa on the east". But many other parts of Kasmir, such as the valley of Candrabhāga and Vitastā, Khaśālaya and Rājapuri, bear traces of the settlement of these people. It is also believed that the Khaśas are of the same race with the Khasiyas of Kumaon and possess some sort of national existence there. In an inscription we have reference to the Khaśa country of Sapādalakṣa hills.

The name Khasas occur as a people of the North-East in our text (No. 23) immediately after the Kunahas (No. 22.) The Kunaha country was obviously the Kunāor or the modern Kunwar valley of the Sutlej, just on the border-land of India, to the north-west of Garhwal and east of the Kulu valley. The proximity of Kunawar to the Nari Khorsum Province, which was the home of the gold-diggers like the Khasas,' helps to establish the identity of the Kunahas with the people of Kunawar. Two other names immediately following

¹ X. 43. 44. Cf. Sukranīti, Ch. IV, Sect V, line 98

² MM, p. 145-16. Cetriboni has been interpreted to be a transcript of Kītrīvani as meaning a branch of the Kehatri. In the *śloka* quoted above we have reference to the Dīrghaveṇabas which sounds similar to the Greek name.

³ MT, pp. 303 and 304. 4 NHH, Ch. II, pp. 28-29; RT, I, p. 47 fn.

⁵ RT, I, p. 47 and p. 48, fn. 6 NHH, op. cit. 7 EI. XII. 50.

the Khasas i. e. the Ghosas (No. 24) and Kucikas (No. 25), are similarly to be assigned to the adjoining regions between Nari Khorsum and Indian borderland. The next name is Ekacaranas (No. 26). They are identified with a hill-tribe akin to the Kiratas and are now found only in Nepal¹. This satisfies the conditions generally and so the Anuvisvas (No. 27), the next name, are also connected with that region.

The passage cited above makes the Tanganas and the Paratanganas (evidently a branch of the Tanganas) neighbours of the Khasas. In the Bhisma Prava list, the Tanganas and their kinsmen the Paratanganas are closely associated together. Pargiter says that they were intermixed with other mountain tribes, and inhabited a country in the middle portion of the Himalayas. They are described as expert in slinging stones; the foregoing observations suggest that they were carriers or distributors of gold from Tibet to India. They are also regarded as the same as the Ganganoi, of Ptolemy. Another writer says that the Tanganoi, a branch of the Kiratas, held the entire hilly country from the Jumna to the Sarda. A city called Tanganapura is known to have existed on the upper course of the Ganges in the Doab between the Bhagirathi and the Alakanda, but later on the people moved southward to Nepal.

But tribal settlements on the northern frontiers of India were numerous. Thus Alberuni writes: "In the mountains which form the frontier of India towards the west there are tribes of the Hindus, or people very akin to them—rebellious savage races—which extend as far as the farther-most frontier of the Hindu race' 6. The Mahā-bhārata similarly gives a list of hill tribes who were fierce, ferocious and powerful:

Ugrāśca Bhīmakarmmāṇastuṣārā yavanāh Khaśāh Dārvābhisārā Daradāh Śakā Ramathataṅganāh Āndhrakāśca Pulindāśca Kirātāścogravikramāh Mlechāśca Pārvatīyāśca.....

Some of these tribes have been discussed. The Darvas are usually combined in a single appellation with the Abhisaras. The Darvas and Abhisaras formed an identical pair, but Arrian refers only

¹ NHH, Ch. II, p. 12, fn. 1. In the passage cited above mention is made of the Ekssanas after the Khasas. The Ekssanas were a mistake for the Ekssanas of our list.

2 vi. 9.64.

3 MP, p. 323.

⁴ MT. p. 210.

⁵ NHH, Ch. III, pp. 6-7.

⁶ AI. I. 199.

⁷ viii, 73. 19-20.

to the Abissareans who lived in a hilly country, which corresponded to the mountain-girt valley now called Hazara¹. The two tribes appear frequently in the $R\bar{a}jatarangin\bar{\imath}$ and the geographical indications contained therein bear out, that the whole tract of the lower and middle hills lying between the Vitasta and the Candrabhaga was occupied by them. Other notices in the $R\bar{a}jatarangin\bar{\imath}$ indicate that the hill-states of Rajapuri (Rajauri) were included in Darvabhisara² country. The people had no reputation for good conduct during the time of Kalhana³.

The Daradas are mentioned as a people of the North (No. 69) and also of the North-East (No. 7). L. Petech is of opinion that the Dadikai people, mentioned along with the Gandarioi by Herodotos in the list of Persian Satrapies, refers to the Dards, whose connection with Ladakh from the earliest times remains fairly well-established though the Purāṇic application of the name may not have extended as far as Ladakh⁴. These people, who were *Mlecchas* according to Manu, lived in Dardistan, the Daradrai of Ptolemy, where the mountains were of "surpassing height". Stein writes that their seats "extended from Citral and Yasin across the Indus regions of Gilgit, and Bunjī to the Kiṣangaṅgā valley in the immediate north of Kashmir". The Dārdu country of *Ain-i-Akbari* refers to the very same region.

The next people the Sakas are not mentioned in our text but the Rāmaṭhas are mentioned as a people of the North (No. 64). The name Rāmaṭha also occurs in the Mahābhūrata where it is conjoined with the Hāra-Hūṇa. The position of Rāmaṭha country is uncertain, but the people are mostly grouped with the mountain tribes of the North such as the Taṅganas and the Hāra-Hūṇas. The location of the Taṅganas has been indicated. The Hāra-Hūṇas are mentioned as a people of the North (No. 63) in our text. The name implies that they were a branch of the Huṇas, who in the North might have lived in Hundes in the Nari Khorsum Province. But the Hāra-Hūṇas are also mentioned along with the Cīnas and Tuṣāras 10. From these allusions it follows, that the

¹ MM, p. 196; MI, p. 69, fn. 3. ² RT, I, p. 32, fn.

³ III. 100, RT, I, p. 81. 4 IHQ. XXIV. 213-15, fn. 6.

⁵ MT, p. 105. 6 RT, I, p. 46. 7 AIA, II. p. 865. 8 ff. 32.11.

⁹ vi. 9. 66. The Ramanas of the *Bhīṣma-Parva list* may be the same as Rhamnai of Ptolemy (MT, p. 159). According to an author the Rum-galis or Lum-galis who border on Laghman and Kabul represent the Ramanas (Atkinson, op. cit. NHH, Ch. II, p. 87). For Ramana, Rāmanīya and Armenia, see N. L. DE in IHQ. II. 35 & 527.

Rămathas and the Hara-Hūṇas, were mainly a northern or north-western race.

The reference to the Andhrakas and Pulindas in the áloka cited above as tribes of the far north, cannot be explained, but the 'fierce and powerful Kiratas' were known to tradition as a people of the North (No. 84). The Kirātas were the most anciently known of the aboriginal races and were distributed over different localities. It is highly probable that as a hill tribe they originally stood for a particular people, but later on the meaning of 'Kirāta' expanded so as to signify any hill tribe. Ptolemy's description of the country of Airrhadoi, which meant Kirāta, refers to a very wide range of the settlement of these people's. According to Napalese usage the country between the Dudh-Kosi and the Arun in Nepal was known as the Kirāta country. A passage of the Mahābhārata refers to their settlement in the Himalayas: Himāvaddurga nilayāh Kirātā5. They were spread along the southern side of the Himalayas, for Arjuna encountered them in his northern expeditions. In the account of Dionysiaka, mention is made of the Cirradioi (Kirāta) who were used to naval warfare, but in boats of skins and it is said that they were ranged near the Arsanians. The Arsanians are the same as the people Uraśa, which was the ancient name of the Hazara district, An epigraph points to a Kirāta settlement in the neighbourhood of the Vindhyas. In a stone railing at Sānchi a short notice runs thus: Cirātiya bhicchunodānam⁹.

They were clad in skins and lived on fruit and roots and were cruel 10. Their women were used as slaves, and in the Rāmāyaṇa they are described as wearing thick topknots. But the people, or a branch of them, might have settled down as an organised community

¹ The Präkrit form as given in an inscription is Chilata (EI. XX, 22).

² Atha; vaveda, x. 4. 14.
3 MT. pp. 191-94 & p. 219. For Kirātas of the east see James Long in JASB. XIX, 1850, pp. 536-37; HAIB, p. 35; Śrīrājmālā, (Prathama-lahara) by Kali Prasanna Sen (Agartala, 1336 Tripurābda), Iatro; pp. 2 ff.
4 Sylvain Levi, Lè Nepal, II, pp. 72-8, DHNI, I. p. 188; MP, p. 322; NHH, Ch II. pp. 13 ff.
5 vii. 4. 7.

⁶ Mbh.; Sabhā, ch. 26. In the Mahābhārata "ell the Kirātas" are spoken of; their chief territory was among the mountains of Kāilāsa, Mandara and Haima, corresponding to the region around Lake Mānasa (MP, p. 322).

⁷ MA, p. 199. EI. V. 170. 9 Lekhamālānukramanī, Prathama khanda, by R. D. Banerjee, No. 210, p. 99. 10 Mbh; ii. 52. 8.

in the mediaeval period, for an inscription refers to a Kirāta King¹.

The Miecchas are mentioned in many ancient texts, usually as a general designation of a host of Punjab and non-Punjab tribes. An ancient tradition even regards the Andhras, Pulindas and Sabaras as dog-eaters or Miecchas. The Jaina Prajñāpanā similarly records two divisions of the peoples of India; Milikha and Āriya, and enumerates 53 peoples in the former group, some of which are the following: Saga, Javaṇa, Sabara, Vavvara, Marumḍo'ḍḍa, Hoṇa, Romaya, Pārasa, Khasa, Chīṇa-Chamchuya, Mālava, Damilā (Draviḍa) etc.

In the Manu-samhitā, the name Mleccha is employed to denote all the fallen members of the Aryan stock. The reference to the Mlechhas in other earlier texts generally denotes the Kirātas, Cinas and other mountain tribes, and was applied without any distinction to all trans-Indus casteless races; the Mahābhārata stated that the Mlecchas dwelt in the Yavaṇa, Cina and Kamboja countries⁵. In the 'Life' of Hiuen Tsang, all places to the north of Lamgham district have been described as Mi-li-ku i. e. frontier or Mleccha lands⁶.

In many texts, however, the name was used to denote a particular tribe. The $R\bar{a}iatarangin\bar{\iota}$ states that the Mlecchas issued forth from the valleys adjoining the Himalayas. Kautilya refers to Dvādasagrama which, according to the commentary, was situated in the Himalayas and inhabited by the Mlecchas. Some passages in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ indicate that the coastal regions were the favourite resort of the Mlecchas: $S\bar{a}garakuk$ sisth $\bar{a}n$ Mlecch $\bar{a}n$ parama $d\bar{a}run\bar{a}n^{10}$. In the $Kath\bar{a}$ -S- $S\bar{a}gara$ they are connected with Sind 11.

In the mediaeval inscriptions, the name Mleccha was applied without any distinction to all foreigners. The Mlecchas of the Junagadh inscription may refer to the Hūṇas¹², the Mleccha army

¹ EI. XVIII. 112, vs. 8-11. For further details about the Kirātas, see Lassen's. Indisches Alterthum, vol. III, pp. 235-37. 2 The Satapatha Brāhmaņa (Iii. 2. 1. 24) refers to Micocha in the sense of a barbarian in speech.

³ AIHT, p. 235. 4 IA. XX. 374. For a full list of the Micocha people of the Jaina texts, see DKDI, p. 227. The Mahābhārata (vi. 9. 66-67) furnishes a list of the Micocha tribes of the far north including the Ramanas and Dasamālikas. 5 vi. 9. 65. 6 BH, p. 57. 7 Rām., iv. 43. 11.

[•] VIII, 2762-64, RT, II, p.217. Of. HV, II, 57.20: Mleochāhaimavatāstathā.

⁹ AS, p. 80, fn. 10. 10 ii. 82. 16; ii. 34. 10. A Cedi king is said to have collected an army of the Miccohas and Bhills (DHNI, II, p. 951).

¹¹ K88R, I, p. 151.

¹² PHA!, p. 488.

of the Gwalier Prasasti of Bhoja meant the Arabs¹, and the Miccohas of the Plates of Ramacandra (Saka 1232)² and the Mataigas (Miccohas) of another inscription³ refer to the Muhammadans in general⁴. The Valacha Micchehas of another inscription⁵ point to the people of Baluchistan.

The Mlecchas were impure, for the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ states that they were of bovine extraction⁶. They were fierce and oruel ($Mlecch\bar{a}h$, $kr\bar{u}r\bar{a}h^{\mathsf{T}}$) and Varāhamihira saya that they were disrespectful: $Nirmary\bar{a}d\bar{a}h$ $Mlecch\bar{a}h$. The author of the $Kath\bar{a}$ -S- $S\bar{u}gara$ writes that they killed Brahmans, interfered with sacrifices, and carried off the daughters of hermits³. In a late Buddhist chronicle the $\bar{A}rya$ - $ma\bar{n}ju\hat{s}r\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{\imath}la$ -Kalpa, the Mlecchas frequently appear as the companions of robbers: $Mlecchataskar\bar{a}h$.

68. KAMBOJAS

The various references to the name point to the upper Oxus region as the home of the Kambojas; the identification of Kambojajanapada with Kashmir and eastern Afghanistan does not satisfy the conditions generally 10. Different sources make out that Gandhāra, Kāpiša, Bālhīka, and Kamboja were the famous countries of the trans-Indus region of India. As already noted, the Gandhārajanapada was bounded by the river Kabul in the south, and extended from Takṣaśila in the east to the river Kunār. Kāpiša related to Kafiristan, between the Kunar and the Hindu kush which separated it from Bālhīka. Kamboja with its capital Dvārakā as suggested by Rhys Davids and identified by Dr. Moti Chandra with Darwaz in the Pamir-Badakshan region, obviously referred to the upper Oxus basin 11. The relative geographical position of these celebrated peoples makes for the extension of the geographical frontiers of

- 1 EI. XVIII. 101, vs. 4. 2 EI. XXV. 222, vs. IS.
- 3 El. XXVI. 92. 4 Cf. 'Mleccha Ghori' of Pithvīrāja-vijaya.
- s EI. XII. 200. 6 Mbh (B)., vii. 80. 42. Cf i. 72. 15.
- 7 Mbh; vi, 9.65. 8 KSSR, II. p. 564. Cf. Skanda Purans, 1. 2.40. 209.
- o For the PĀRADAS (No. 62) see supra pp. 114-15; HĀRAHUŅAKAS (No. 63), Supra p. 130; RĀMAŢHAS (No. 64), supra p 130; RUDDHAKAṬAKA (No. 65), Supra p, 23. DAŚAMĀLIKAS (No. 66), cannot be identified. For the Settlement of the Kṣatriyas, Vaisyas and Śūdras (No. 67) see supra p. 99 fn. 5. Settlements of different orders of society are referred to in many texts (Cf. Brūhmaṇavaha of Rājašekhara). Pāṇini's Brāhmaṇaka-janapada (v. 2. 71) is equated with Brahmanabad of Sind (IHQ. XXIX. 15).
 - 10 S. B. Chaudhuri in IHQ. XXVI. 118.
 - 11 See also Dr. Agrawala in IHQ. XXIX, I3-14-

ancient India in the north-west as far as Ferghana, the Prakanva of Pānini (vi. 1. 153)1.

75 and 76. ĀTREYAS AND BHARADVĀJAS

In the Bhīsma Parva list of the Mahābhārata, the Ātreyas and the Bharadvājas are mentioned in a list of fierce Mleccha people along with other barbarous tribes, mainly of the north and north-west: Atreyāḥ-sabhar-advājāstathaiva stanapoṣikāḥ². In the Harṣa-carita³, in a list of countries famous for horses, mention is made of Bharadvāja between Kamboja and Sindhu. These allusions and notices point to the north-western country beyond the Indus on the west as the home of these tribes.

77. PRASTALAS

In the Rāmāyaņa they are mentioued in a list of the Punjab nations: Prasthalān Bharatāniścaiva Kurūniśca saha Madrakaih⁴. Other sources similarly indicate that the Prasthalas were a Punjab people, and lived very near to the Trigartas: Strigartah Prasthalā-dhipāh⁵. Prasthala was perhaps a dependency of Trigarta in the time of the Kurukṣetra war and Pargiter equates it with the district 'between Ferozpur, Pattiala and Sirsa'. The name Pātiālā or Pattiala seems to be a contraction of Prasthala⁶.

78. LAMPĀKAS

Their geographical location has been discussed. From Chinese sources we learn that the people were short in stature, but were active and impetuous. Their garments were made of white linen, and by nature they were thievish and untrustworthy.

85. TĀMASAS and TOMARAS

The Tamasas were the people of Tamasa (dark river), i. e. the Tons a river of the Tehri State and Dehra-Dun district which rises

- 1 For the DARADAS (No. 69) see supra p. 130; VARBARAS (No. 70), supra p. 114. The ANGALAUKIKAS (No. 71) are mentioned in the Matsya-Purāņa in connection with the trans-Himalayan rivers of the north (121. 44). They may be a totem-stic tribs like the people of Kashgar (YC, II, p. 290, 292). For the CĪNAS (No. 72), see supra p. 112-13; TUKHĀRAS (No. 73), see supra p. 105 ff; BĀHYATODARAS (No. 74), see supra p. 107.
 - 3 Op. cit. p. 50. 4 iv. 43, 11. 5 vii. 16. 19; MP, p. 321.
- 6 DD, p. 159. 7 Supra p. 100. 8 BR, II, p. 90. For the STANAPAS (No. 79), see supra p. 101; PĪDIKAS (No. 80), supra p. 101; JĀGUDAS (No. 81) supra pp. 102; APAGAS (No. 82), supra p. 104 ff; ALIMADRAS (No. 83) supra p. 101; KAIRATA (No. 84) supra p. 131.

north of the Jamnotri peaks, a few miles from the sources of the Yamuna. But a tribe of the name of Tomara also existed, for the Matsya Purana records that Tomara and Hansamarga (No. 86) were two other countries, like Asvamukha and Karnaprävarana, through which the river Pavani flowed 1. The passage deals with mythical geography, but Pavani was presumably a river of the central Himalayan mountain system, and the indications are that the Tomaras and Hamsamärgas lived somewhere in the borderland between India and Tibet, very near to each other, as the bearing in our text (Nos. 85 and 86) goes. The place name Hamsamarga is one in meaning with Hamsadvara, for marga and dvara both carries the sense of a path. Hamsadvara has been regarded as the same as the Kraunca-randhra of the Mcghaduta, the latter being regarded as identical with the Niti Pass in Kumaun, which affords the passage from India to Tibet². The Mahābhārata refers to a people called Hamsapathas along with the Sakas, Yavanas and Kāmbojas. Etymologically, Hamsapatha and Hamsamarga bear the meaning and in all probability denote the same place. In all these notices, we are given some information about those mountain tribes, who settled in the deep valleys, ravines and passes that connected the trans-Himalayan highland of Tibet with India. Similarly, the Kupathas of the North-Eastern Division (No. 38), must have been one such people of the Himalayan Passes. In a chapter devoted to the description of mythical geography of the north, the Matsya Purana gives the name of some passes ending with patha, such as Kupatha, Kharapatha and Vetrasankupatha. The Rajataranginī knows a country called Karapatha⁵ which was near the Himalayas⁶ and Siddhapatha which was old name of the Sidau or Budil Pass (14000 ft.) in Kashmir⁷.

^{1 121. 55} ff. 2 DD, p. 73 & 104, 3 vii, 19. 7. 4 121. 55 ff.

⁵ VIII, 2444, RT, II, p. 190. 6 AIH I, pp. 278-79.

THQ. XXVII, 237 fn. These entries of our text clearly relate to the deep ravines and narrow mountain passes of the north which seem to have been fairly well-known. Thus Pāṇini in his Devapathādi-gaṇa (v. 3. 100) refers to various kinds of routes, e.g. vāripatha, sthalapatha, rathapatha, karipatha, ajapatha, sankupatha, rājapatha, sinhapatha, hainsapatha. The Buddhist Niddesa Commentary similarly furnishes a list of routes, passes and tracks such such as jaṇṇupatha, meṇḍapatha (ram-track), chattapatha (parasol route), vainsapatha (bamboo track), sakuṇapatha, mūsikapatha, darīpatha (cavern path) and vettacāra (course of reed). See Mahāniddesa, vol. I, 145-55; IL 414-15. Dr. D. C. Siroar writes that these names also occur in early Indian works such as

87. KAŚMIRAS

name Kasmīra with its derivative Kāsmīra in the ganas to Panini's work, and the scholiast adds that they belonged to the same group as the Sālvas¹. The Ksatriya heroes of Kasmīr are stated to have been conquered by Arjuna*. The country and the people are noticed by classical writers.3 Hiuen Tsang reached the country of Ka-sse-mi-lo (Kaśmīra) from Wu-la-shih, i. e. Hazara4; and his notices of the country and its people give the impression that the inhabitants "have changed as little as the soil since Hiuen Tsang's days." Dr. Stein remarks that Kasmir must have been then (in the time of Hiuen Tsang), just as now, restricted to the great basin of the Vitastib, and the side valleys drained by its tributaries above the Baramula defile5. The capital in Hiuen Tsang's time was perhaps Mi-na-si-to (Menāsitā) and in other Chinese accounts the name is given as Po-lo-wu-lo-pu-lo (Barāmūla). Adhisthāna, or Adashtān of Arab geographers6, that is, the present city Śrīnagar was comparatively a new place at the time of the traveller. According to the author of the Kathā-S-Sāgara, Hiranyapura was the capital of Kāśmir and Vijaya its famous holy place. It is also stated that that the Himalayas encircled Kashmir with its embrace and it was laved by the waters of the Vitasta*. According to Purusottamadeva Kīra was in Kāśmīra⁸, Hemacandra, however, refers to a variety of names such as Mādhumata, Sārasvata, and Vikarņika as the alternative names of the country9.

Vimunavathu and the Milinda-panha. The Bihatkatha clearly refers to ajapatha (XVIII. 416) which stood for the narrow tracks leading over high mountains and defiles which the colonists had to negotiate with the help of goats to transport merchandise during the course of a journey to Suvarnabhūmi. Numerous mountain terrains, passes, routes, and caveran path which had to be crossed in all stages of the journey to distant lands beyond India across the mountains, sees and deserts by every improvised means as that of a rope, cane or branch of a tree or bamboo which the colonists experienced have been clearly reflected in these long lists (See R. C. Majumdar, Suvarnadvīpa, I, pp. 56-60; Agrawala in IHQ. XXIX. 8), For HAMSAMĀRGAS (no. 86) see supra p. 135

- 1 Supra p. 29. 2 Mbh., ii. 27. 17.
- 8 MT, p 305: See RT, II, pp. 353 ft.
- 4 YC, I, pp. 257-262. 5 RT, II, pp. 351 ff.
- 6 Elliot and Dowson, 'The history of India', I, p. 64.
- 7 KSSR, II, p. 82, 113, 115, 196. 8 TKS, p. 31.
- 9 Abhidhane, p. 382. For the TANGANAS (No. 88) see supra p. 129. CULIKAS or SULIKAS (No. 89) Supra p. 113.

90. KUHAKAS

They were the people of Kohistan situated between the river Indus on the west and the Hazara district on the east. This is supported by the evidence of the Matsya. Purāņa which says that the river Indus flowed through the janapadas of Gandhāra, Uraśa and Kuhu: Gāndhārānaurasān Kuhun¹.

1 121.46-47. For the URNAS (No. 91) see supra p. 91, fn. 5.

CHAPTER V

THE NORTH-WESTERN AND NORTH-EASTERN DIVISIONS
SECTION I. THE NORTH-WESTERN DIVISION
(See chart No. III)

The accounts of this division come from only one source namely the Brhat-samhita group. There are considerable variations in the list of Parasara and Mark (k)., but both of them support in their own way the whole list of the Brhat-sainhitā which is, therefore, shown Those names of the Parāsara list which are left without any support are eliminated. The Mark (k). has put some of the names belonging to this division in its list of names going under the Western Division which accounts for the short list of the North-Western Division. The North-Western Division of India is not noticed in the Purănic scheme of the divisions of India. This may explain the absence of the lists of the Va. group in this division. Only the Markandeya provides a list of 22 names labelled North-Western, (Supra p. 2) which, however, turns out to be the same set of names the other texts have put under the Northern Division (Supra p. 82. chart No. II). It is not a new set of names that the Mārkan deya tradition knows about the NW. Division; through some textual corruptions some names of the Va. group of the Northern Division have come to be labelled as 'North-Western'. In other words, that very portion which the Mark. omits to state as going under the Northern Division, has been incorrectly put here, and consequently, this group of Mark. has been shown in its list going under the Northern Division where it is thoroughly in position, and perfectly agrees with the other lists of the Va. group. (See chart II and III). Incidentally. this is an instance of the nature of the textual corruptions of the The following are, therefore, the peoples and countries of this division :-

- (1) Mandavyas¹, (2) Tukhāras², (3) Tālas³,
- 1 Mandavya as a country of the North-West is mentioned in the Agni Purana (IHQ. IX. 476). The word may be a mistake for the Murundas, who according to Hemacandra lived in Lampaka or Laghman: Lampakae=tu Murandah (Abhidhana, p. 383). The same people may have been meant in the Allahabad Inscription of Samudragupta, where mention is made of the Saka-Murundas. According to Sten-Konow Murunda is a Saka word meaning lord (EI. XIV. 292-93). See also B. C. Law in IC. pp. 386 ff; NHIP. VI. 147; HAIB, p. 32, fn. 7 & pp. 33-4, for other notices to the name. 2 Supra pp. 105 ff.
- 3 They may be connected with the city of Ta-lo-ssu restored as Talas (situated near the present Aulie-ata) which was visited by Hiuen Tsang while

NORTH-WESTERN DIVISION

Ш

(Chart No. III.)

Brhat-Sambitā, Ch. 14, Vs. 22-23.	Parāśara Paścimottara- syām.	Märkandeya (k) 58, 35 ff.	Mārkaņdeya, 57. 35 ff.	Garuda, i, 55, 16 ff.
1. Māņdevyas	5	1.	•••	1.
2. Tukbūras	8. Tușāra	•••	•••	2.
3. Tālas	9.	10 TY21-	***	•••
4. Helas 5. Madras	12. Halata 10. Valla ?	10 Vāla 12 I)harmaba- ddhas ?	13.	4. Muşas
6. Asmakas		3. Aśvakālautas	•••	•••
7. Kulūtas	•••	4. Kunyota	•••	441
8. Lahadas	ll, Halada	5. Ladahas	•••	•••
9. Strīrājya	22.	β.	•••	•••
10. Nrambavana	10.0	8.	•••	* 17h
11. Khasthas	18 Saraga	11. Avasthā	***	5. Khasa
12 Venumatī	2. 4.	9. 7. Balikas	•••	** 1
J3. Phalgulukas 14. Guruhas	21 Guluha		***	•••
15 Marukuccha	7.	•••		••
16. Carmarangas 17. Ekavilooana	6. Ekanetra	2. Candakhāras	8. Carmakhandikār	•••
18. Šūlikas	20.	13. Alukas ?	•••	3. Mülikas
19 Dirghagrivas	16.		244	•••
20. Dīrghārya	17.	••	Berl	
21. Dîrghakeéas	15.	-11	-	6.
(21)	1. Girimatī		***	•••
	3. Ralamatī	•••	••	•••
	13. Berdilîna	••	1**	•••
	14. Vitina 19. Visavesa	***	•=•	•
	(22)	14. Urūkurma	***	•••
•	(22)	(14)	1. Vāhlikas	•••
	•	(**)	2. Vatadhanas	•••
			3 Abhiras	***
			4 Kalatoyakas	
			5. Aparantes	•••
			6 Sudras	•••
			7. Pallavas	-
			9. Gandharas	***
			10. Gabalas	•••
			11. Sudras 12. Sauvīras	***
			14. People of Satadru	•••
			15. Kalingas	•••
			16. Pāradas	•••
			17. Harabhusikas	•••
				•••
		•	18. Matheras	***
			19. Bahu Bhadras	•••
			20 Kaikeyas	***
			21. Dašamālikas	
			22. Settlement of	
			Kşatriyas, Vaišyas & Śūdras	***
			(22)	7. Mabis
				nadas (7)

- (4) Hālas¹, (5) Madras², (6) Aśmakas³, (7) Kulūtas⁴, (8) Ladadas⁵, (9) Strīrājya⁶, (10) Nṛsimhavanam⁷
- journeying through Turkistan. Talastān is a mountain-girt country and is watered by the various tributaries of Syr Darya. In ancient times it was frequented by merchants coming from all parts. The natives were mostly Tartars (YO, I, p. 82; BR, I, p. 28; Turkistan by E. Schuyler, 1876, vol. I, p. 399,. But it is difficult to say if the information underlying this entry refers to the people of Turkistan, for the next name Hālas (No. 4) is very clearly the designation of the people of Halā Mts. of the lower Indus valley, that run between Baluchistan and Sind. It was the same as Sālvakā-giri of the Gaṇa-pātha of Pāṇini (IHQ. XXIX. 6, 19).

 1 Alberuni combines the two and reads the name as Tālahala (AI, I. p. 302). For Hālas see above.
 - ² Supra p. 115 ff. 3 Supra pp. 50-52 ff.
- 4 Mārk (k). reads the name as Kunyatāladahas. Pargiter (MP. p. 375) has taken it as a single word. The reading of the Brhat-samhitā clearly indicates that the names are Kulūtas and Lahadas. Alberuni reads Kulūtalahada (op. oit.), which is thus a mistake. Dr. Kirfel probably following Pargiter also fails to note that the Kunyatāladaha of Mārk (k). refers to two names (DKDI, p. 87). This has led to confusion in the order of names he has tabulated. Thus he puts Bālika of Mārk (k). against Halada (ibid) but Bālika seems to represent the Phalgulukas of the Brsam. (No. 13) as shown in the chart. Against Phalguluka, Dr. Kirfel puts Dharmabaddha of Mārk (k). [DKDI, p. 88] which does not agree. For Kulūtas see supra p. 119.
- 5 In the Rujatarangini mention is made of both Lahara and Lohara. The former is identified with the modern Lar District (V. 51, RT, I, p. 193; VII. 1360, RT, I, p. 375). Lohara is famous as the ancestral home of the Kasmiran kings (VII. 140, RT, I, p. 278), and its position is fixed in the valley called Loharin in the territory of Prunts (RT, II, pp. 293-300). The Lahadas of our list may be connected with any of these places, although none of these two names seems to be known to epic writers. Lahada, bears a likeness to mod. Lahore, which existed in the time of Ptolemy (MT, p. 126). Abul Fazl states that in ancient astronomical records Lohawar is given as the name of Lahor 6 This entry goes to corroberate the traditions (AIA, II, p. 312). of the Indians regarding such kingdoms. Vātsyāyana in his Kāmasātra groups Strīrājya with Vāhlīkas (VKS, p. 385) with whom it had certain customs in H. C. Chakladar thinks that in the Rajatarangini, Strirajya is considered to have been lying in the extreme north-west which accordingly agrees with the bearing given in the Brhat-samhita (ABORI, VII. 144 ff). Hiuen Teang's account of Lang-Kie-lo corresponding to a portion of Baluchistan and Mekran points to the existence of a "Women Kingdom" there (YC, II. pp. 257-58; BR, II, pp. 277-79; See also Supra pp. 109, 127, fn.).
- 7 Dr. Kern divides the word into two parts as meaning two names. Alberuni says that Nrisimhavana means the people with lion faces (op. cit.). But a name which is restored as Narasimha occurs in Hiuen Tsang's itinerary. Cunningham thinks that the place is represented by the large ruined mound of Ran-Si about 25 miles to the west of Lahore (CAGI, pp. 221-22). Nrsimha of

- (11) Khasthas¹, (12) Venumatī², (13) Phalgulukas³, (14) Guruhas⁴,
- (15) Marukuccha⁵, (16) Carma-rangas⁶, (17) Ekanetra⁷,
- (18) Šūlikas*, (19) Dīrghagrīvas, (20) Dīrghāsya1*,
- (12) Dīrghakeśas¹¹.

our text is a mere variant, and the forest of Pilu trees lying near the place as recorded by the Chinese traveller may bear out the identity of Nṛṣiṃhavana with Narasiṃha.

1 This is a mythical name (AI. I. 302).

- 2 This cannot be identified. Alberuni says that it was Tirmidh (op cit.).
- s This is an unknown name. Were they the Phegelas of the Greek writers who lived somewhere between the Hydraotes and the Hyphasis (MI, p. 281)?

 4 Supra p. 52. The name occurs distinctly as Guruha in the Bihat-saihhita (XIV. 23), but Dr. Kirfel reads the name as Guluha (DKDI, p. 88) which is a mistake. He further shows Alūka if Mārk (k). against Guluha (Ibid). But Alūka is plainly a corruption of Sūlikas of Brsam (No. 18) as shown in the chart.

 5 Supra p. 113.
 - 6 This is a totemestic tribe of uncertain identity.
 - 7 This is a fabulous people. 8 See supra p. 113.
 - All these are some fabulous names so common in ethnographical tradition.

SECTION II

THE NORTH-EASTERN DIVISION (See chart No. IV)

In the text of Vā. group we have six lists going under this division all of which follow the same order and enumerate the same set of names. The different lists of the Brsam. group, in spite of considerable variations, make out a common text. The number of ethnic names and countries recorded by the various lists is shown below:—

Brsam. Parāśara. Mārk (k) | Vā. Matsya. Mark. Br. Vām. Gad. 35 | 27 | 33 | 12 | 12 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 7

The Brsam. records the greatest number and the striking feature is that the whole list is supported by the Mārk (k). and Parāśara in their own way. There is, however, one peculiarity; many of the names of the list of the Brhat-samhitā are included elswhere, especially in the Northern Division by the text of the Vā. group. In fact, the 'North-East', judged from the location of names going under it, was manifestly a mistake for the 'North.' In the list of Parāśara there are some unaccountable gaps but in such cases the Brsam. and Mārk (k). agree with each other and contradict Parāśara. In the list of the Mārk (K), there is only one name which finds no support; there are some few gaps also, and although its reading of names is in most cases irregular, yet it has the merit of being a better account than Parāśara. Hence, the whole list of the Brhat-samhitā can be exhibited in this division, which necessarily means the inclusion of the Mārk (K)'s list, except the names which are not corroborated.

The names recorded by the different lists of the Vā. group under the head Parvatāśrayin are comparatively few in number. The noteworthy feature is that a good number of them are found in the lists of the people of this division (Aiśāna) as furnished by the text of the Brsam. group. This lends weight to the view that the Parvatāśrayinali (i.e. the Highlanders) of the Purāṇas represented the people of the North-Eastern division. But it has been stated (supra p. 4) before that there was some confusion with regard to this North-Eastern Division, regarding which all the texts including that of the Brsam. blundered; for even Varāhamihira under the label Aiśānyām gives in the list under review a set of ethnic names and countries whose bearing in most cases was decidedly the 'North.' Perhaps the name 'North-East' was used generically only to conform to the plan

of the Nine Divisions of India but adequate data to substantiate it were lacking. The result was that a whole people of the 'North' had passed undetected into the list of the North-Eastern Division, and no attempt was obviously made to rectify the error or to submit this list to any critical revision.

But in spite of agreements with the text of the Brsam. group the Purāṇic lists make out a different text. The text of the Vā. group of this division shows that the Mat. has borrowed from the Vā., and that the Br. has copied from the Mārk; for the Vā. and Mat. have twelve names while the Mārk and Br. record thirteen. But the Mat. has not carefully followed the Vā., because there is a slight irregularity in its order. The list of Br. is, however, free from such defects. The list of the Vāmana has been based on that of the Mārk. The Gad. list is essentially short. These shortcomigs notwithstanding, the list of the Vā. stands supported and is, therefore, included in this division. The following are the ethnic names and countries of the North-Eastern Division according to the text of the Brsam. group:—

- (1) Meruka¹, (2) Nasṭarājya², (3) Paśupālas³, (4) Kīras⁴, (5) Kāśmīras⁵, (6) Abhisāras⁶, (7) Daradas⁷, (8) Taṅganas⁸
- (9) Kulūtas", (10) Sairindhas¹⁰, (11) Vanarāstra¹¹, (12) Brahma-
- 2 This may be identified with Nast or 1 Supra p. 88 fa. Jagat-sukh in the upper valley of the Beas, the ancient seat of the Pala Rajas 3 Here is perhaps a of Kulu (NHH, Chap. II, p. ?, fn. 3). reference to the shepherds of the Kulu valley who master large flocks of sheep The Kulu valley is dotted with deuse grazing grounds (gabr) and lofty grassy summits. As pasturage is the occupation of many people there, pasturage rights and customs of Kulu have developed on the basis of ancient 4 Dr. Kirfel's collation of names leaves much to be convention, desired. The Kinnaras of Mark (k). (No. 2) are shown against the Kiras of Bream. (No. 4) in our chart. But Dr. Kirfel equates the Kīras of the Brsam, with the Kīcakas of the Mürk (K). No. 4 (DKDI, p. 90). This is a mistake, for Kīcaka plainly refers to Kucika of the Brsam. list No. 25 (see chart). Against the Kucikas of Brsam., he has put Maraka of Mark (K). No. 20 (DKDI, p 90). But there is no such word as Maraka in the list of the 'Mark (K). The word is Damaraka referring to the Damaras of the Brsam. No. 14 (chart). So in Kirfel's chart of Mark (K) there is no name for Damara of the Bream. 6 Alberuni's For Kīras, see supra p. 98 fn. 1. 5 Supra p. 136. reading Abhi & Sārada (AI I. 303) is plainly a mistake. supra p. 130.
 - 7 Supra p. 130.
 8 Supra p. 129.
 9 Supra p. 119.
 10 Supra p. 124.
 11 Alberuni reads simply Rastra (op. cit.)
 The name, as the context and

grouping implies, stood for some forest region near about the Upper Jumna. It may have corresponded to the northern portion of Garhwal. This location is also indicated by the mention of Brahmapura which comes next.

- pura¹ (13) Dārvas², (14) Dāmaras³, (15) Vanarājya⁴,
- (16) Kirātas⁵, (17) Cīnas⁶, (18) Kaunindas⁷, (19) Bhallas⁸.
- (20) Pololal⁹, (21) Jațāsura¹⁰, (22) Kunahas¹¹, (23) Khaṣas¹²,
- (24) Ghosas 13, (25) Kucikas 14, (26) Ekacaranas 15, (27) Anuvisvas 16,
- (28) Suvarnabhūmi¹⁷, (29) Vasuvanam¹⁸. (30) Devasthala¹⁹,
- (31) Pauravas², (32) Cīranivāsanas³, (33) Trinetras², (34) Mt. Muñjādri²³, (35) Gandharvas²⁴.
- 1 This is the Po-lo-hi-mo-pu to of Huen Tsang's account. The name is restored as Brahmapura and identified with Kumaun or the whole hilly country between the Alakanda on the west, and the Karuali river which joins the Gogra in its upper course in Nepal on the east (CAGI, p. 408; see also supra p. 127).
- ² supra pp. 129-30 ³ The name is frequently mentioned in the Rājatarahginā as the designation of a class of feudal land-owners (Bojar) of Kasmir (IV. 348, RT, I, p. 154 & II, pp. 307 ff). But Dāmara may be a tribal expression as well, for Pliny mentions a people called Dimuri (MM, p. 152).
- 4 The identity of this hilly region is uncertain. If it is the Banagara of Ptolemy (MT, p. 141) it may lend identity with the Banna or Banu district on the North-West. Of. Vanāyu of the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}ya\gamma a$ (i.6.22). Dr. Agrawala identifies Vūrņava of Pāṇini's Sūtra with the Bannu region and waziristan (IHQ. XXVII. 11; XXIX. 10, 31).

 5 Supra p. 131.

 6 Supra p. 112-113.
- This is an unknown name; besides it is doubtful if this is the original form of the name as it goes unchecked in the list. The context and the bearing indicates that it was situated near about the Kulu valley. It is just possible that Balsan one of the Simla Hill States of the Punjab is meant here. The State lies 30 miles east of Simla.
- 9 The latter part of the name 'Lola' survives in modern Lähul, the Himalayan canton of the Kulu sub-division of Kangra district. The Märk (K.)'s reading Lolana (see chart) is a nearer approach to the Lahūlis, i.e. the people of Lahul.

 10 This is the name of a mountainous tribe who were known for their locks of hair.

 11 They were the people of what is now known as Kunihār or Kunwar, a small Simla Hill State of the Punjab lying to the north of Bashahr (see supra p. 128).

 12 Supra pp. 128. ff.
- 13 This is a professional name.

 14 This refers to the people of Turkistan. Pāṇini's Kūcavāra (IV.3.94) and Kūca of ekt. ms. and inscription being the old name of Turkistan (IHQ. XXIX. 31).

 15 The name of a fabulous people.

 16 Supra p. 129.

 17 Alberuni gives the same reading (op. cit.). Supra p. 127.

 18 Supra p. 127.
 - 20 This is out of place here. For the Paurayas see supra p. 118.
- 21 & 22 They are the people of dense mountains about whom no sufficient knowledge was known.

 23 Alberuni's reading Puñjādri (op. cit.) is a mistake. Supra p. 87.

Tribes of this division according to the text of the Vā. group are: -36) Nīhāras!. (37) Hamsamārgas², (38 Kupathas³, (39) Karņaprāvaraņas⁴, (40) Ūrņas⁵, (41) Sāhūdakas⁶, (42) Trigartas², (43) Mālavas⁵, (44) Tāmasasゥ.

- 1 The variant Nirābāras approximates with Nigarahāra i e. Jalalabad (MP, p. 345).

 2 Supra p. 135.

 8 Supra p. 135.

 The reading Kurus (IHQ. XXI, 312, fn. III) cannot be taken in view of the identity of the Kupathas.

 4 They are a fabulous people. Dr. B. A. Saletore in his book 'The wild tribes in Indian History' (Lahore, 1935) has tried to depict the Lambakarņas, Karņaprāvarņas, Ekapādas, Yakṣas and Kinnaras as so many tribes of historical India. The Karṇaprāvaraṇa country may be located in the eastern Himalayas (IHQ. XXI. 313, fn. 112).

 5 A people of this name who lived near the Bālhikas has been noticed (supra p. 111-12).
- The variants of the name are many but none of them is identifiable. The name is distorted beyond recognition. The Mahabharata refers to a people called Sakidgraha in the Bhamaparva list. Dr. D. C. Sircar restores the name as Hühukas (IHQ, XXI, 313, fn. 113).

 7 Supra p. 97.
 - They are not in position here. Supra p. 134-5.

CHAPTER VI

THE WESTERN DIVISION (See chart No. V)

Most of the texts furnish a list of ethnic and country names of this division, but the number recorded by each is comparatively small. The different accounts of the Brsm. group agree with one other and form one common text. But the Mārk (K)., unlike what is observed to be its general feature, formulates a long list of new and unfamiliar names like the list of Parāśara, not a single name of which occurs in any other list of its group. The Purānas supply seven lists, and in spite of many irregularities and defects in their lists, it is possible to find out the essential features of agreement in the different Purāṇic lists constituting the text of the Vā. group. The accounts of Garuda and Kūrma are short, and in some points unreliable. The countries grouped under Avanti tendencies in the Nāṭyaśāstra are also tabulated here. In the Kāvyamīmārinsā we have a short list of nine names. The following table will show the number of names recorded by the different lists:—

Bram. Parūšara. Mārk(K). | Vā. Mat. Mārk. Br. Vām. Gad. Kūr. | Nātya Kāvya 19 27 28 | 19 7 19 4 18 6 5 | 10 9

In the list of the Brhat-samhita names going under Nos. 17 and 18, are not supported by any other account of its group; with the exception of these two, the whole list of the text Those names of the list of can be shown in this division. Parāśara and Mārk(K). which are in agreement with the Brhatsaithita are likewise included. The uncorroborated group of names in the Parāsara list, is not thoroughly in position here, and is thus removed. But as between Parāšara and Mārk(K)., it is the former that supports best the list of the Brhat-samhita. In fact, the Mark(K) list is highly defective. It has condensations as in No. 1 the first two names of the B_That -sāmhitā list are condensed into one. It has wide gaps, e.g. it omits names going under Nos. 15, 16 and 19 of the Brhat-samhita list. It has also the defect of irregular insertions and of sundry displacement of names; for names going under Nos. 20, 24, 26 and 27 which belong to the text of the north-west are carelessly put into this divison, which accounts for the short list of the Mark(K). in the North-Western Division1.

¹ The Sarkaras of Mark (K). (No. 15), in the group of inserted countries, may be connected with Sukkur in Sind (IHQ. XXIX. 31).

That the text of Va. group offers altogether a different version is exemplified here very clearly. We have here two different sets of country and ethnic names in which, unlike other divisional lists, not a single name of the Va. group occurs in in the text of the Brsam. group. With the exception of some few textual corruptions and minor displacements, which are easily discernible, the lists of the Vā. group form one text. This text of the Va. group begins with the Surparakas and ends with the Arbudas in a successive order; in all nineteen in number, some of which are mentioned by the Brhatsanhitā in a different location. Thus for instance, names going under Nos.4, 11, 13, 16 and 18 of the Va. list in this division are to be found in the list furnished by the Brhat-sanihitā in the Southern Division under Nos. 5, 28, 11, 62 and 21 respectively. Coming to other details, we see that the Mat. and the Br. have suffered unexpected textual corruptions. Their lists are very short, and if the former has left out the earlier portion of the Va. list, the latter has left out the latter portion of the Mark. list. The very fact that the Mat. does not conform to the order of the Va, nor the Br. to that of the Mark, is an unmistakable sign of their unreliability. The list of the Mark. is complete and full, but there are certain mistakes in the reading of names, as also in the insertion of new names. The defect of Vamana's list is that its distortion of names is carried beyond recognition. The whole list of the Va. is, therefore, admitted into this division, which necessarily means the, inclusion of the other lists of its group with the exception of the unsupported inserted names. The entries left uncorroborated in the list of Gad. and Kur. are necessarily excluded from this division, and this gains support from the fact that the names in question occur in the lists of the south-western division of the Brsam, group. So, the following may be shown in the Western Division according to the text of the Brsam. group :-

- (1) Manimat², (2) Meghavat³, (3) Vanaugha⁴, (4) Kşurārpana⁵ (5) Astācala⁶, (6) Āparāntakas⁷, (7) Śāntikas⁸,
- 1 But Dr. Kirfel gives a different version of the Matsya list in which some names of the earlier portion of the Vā. list occur. Cf the Matsya Purāṇa list of Die Volker des Westens in DKDI, p. 75 with the list of the same text tabulated in chart No. V. 2 Alberuni reads Maṇimān (AI, I. 202). Supra p. 88.
 - 3 Supra p. 88. 4 Does it refer to Bannu? 5 Its identity is unknown.
- Supra p. 96. The Supra pp. 55-56. Some suggested that it corresponded to Satisa of Asoka's inscription.

- (8) Haihayas¹, (9) Praśastādri², (10) Vokkāņas³, (11) Pañcanada,⁴ (12) Rāmaṭhas⁵, (13) Pāratas, (14) Tārakṣiti or Tārakṣuras, (15) Jṛṅgas, (16) Valśyas, (17) Miecchas⁶.
- The following may be exhibited in this division according to the text of the Va. group:—
- (18) Sūrpākaras, (19) Kolāvanas, (20) Durgas, (21) Tālikaṭas, (22) Puleyas or Pulindas⁷, (23) Surālas⁸, (24) Rūpasas, (25) Tāpasas, (26) Kuruminas⁹, (27) Kāraskaras¹⁰, (28) Nāsikāvyas, (29) Narmadā, (30) Bhārukacchas, (31) Māheyas, (32) Sārasvatas, (33) Kacchīyas, (34) Surāṣṭras, (35) Āvantyas, (36) Arbudas.

11. PAÑCANADA

Paficanada is frequently mentioned in the Mahābhārata¹¹, sometimes in conjunction with the Sindhus and Sauvīras¹². In the Kumārapāla-carita of Jayasinha Sūri (A. D. 1365), it is said that Kumārapāla (1141-73 A. D.) the king of Anahila-pāṭaka, after defeating the king of Kaecha marched against Pañcanadādhipa, who is described as 'Nausādhana-samuddhata'. After vanquishing the king of Pañcanada, he proceeded against Mūlasthana, i. e. Multan¹³. As it is placed between Cutch and Multan, it would appear that Pañcanada was the designation of the littoral portion of Sind in the late mediaeval period. It was perhaps the name of the region to the south of Hyderabad from where the main stream of the Indus bifurcates into several streams¹⁴.

14. TĀRAKŞITI or TĀRAKŞURAS

In Tārakṣuras we have possibly a reference to the Turuṣkas or Turks. 15 The word Turuṣka is plainly a contraction of Tārakṣura,

For the different views on the Satyaputras see IC. I. 100-107, 667 ff; II. pp. 549 ff; PHAI, p. 272. fn. 6.

1 Supra p. 69.

2 Its identity is not known.

3 Supra pp. 113-114.

4 Alberuni writes that it was the country of the union of the five rivers (Ibid).

5 Alberuni reads Mathara (Ibid).

6 According to Alberuni they were the Arabs (Ibid).

7 Dr. Kirfel drops the name from the list of the Braam. as prepared by him (DKDI, p. 87). This cannot be accounted for (See Braam. XIV, 21).

- This is taken on the authority of the Mārkaṇḍeya which seems to be more trustworthy.

 8 The suggestion that it may be Murala (IHQ. XXI. 309, fn. 81) is pure conjecture.

 9 This is taken on the authority of the Mārkaṇḍeya. The other reading Ramina as suggested (Ibid. fn. 84) seems to refer to the name accepted.

 10 For the different versions bearing on the name see Dr. D. C. Sircar, op. cit. p. 309, fn. 85.

 11 Mbh (B)., v. 4.19; v. 19.29.

 12 Ibid vi. 20. 10. cf. Mbh; ii. 32.10.

 13 DHNI, II. p. 986.
- 14 For RĀMAŢHAS (No. 12) see supra p. 130., and PĀRATAS (No. 13) Supra pp. 114-115.

and as such, the people meant here may be the Turks of Eastern Turkestan. From the Rājataraṅgiṇi we learn that the Turuṣkas used to shave half their head¹ and supply girls for the kings of Kasmir³. Turuṣka officers were also employed in the Kasmir kingdom³. We have reference to the cavalry squadrons of the Turuṣkas in Somadeva's Kathā-S-Sāgara where separate mention is also made of the Tājikas⁴. It is suggested that 'Turuṣka' has been used with reference to the invasion of Muhammad Khiljī, son of Bakhtyār, in a local inscription of Assam⁵.

18. SÜRPĀKARAS

It is a mistake for the Sūrpārakas i. e. the natives of Sopara. Sopara is near the coast, in the Bassein taluk of the Thana district, 30 miles north of Bombay. In an inscription of the Śaka year 1072, we have the form Sūrpāraka⁶, and in another Sorpāraga⁷. It is mentioned as a holy place in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata^8$:

Narmadāyāmupaspṛśya tathā $S\overline{u}$ rpārako**d**ake Ekapakṣam nir \overline{u} hāro

In Ptolemy's book the place is mentioned as Soupara, It was an emporium of trade and is frequently mentioned in the Buddhist texts.

20. DURGAS

Pargiter connects them with Dungarpur, a town and state about 90 miles north-east of Ahmedabad 10. But Durga was also the name of a tributary of the Sabarmati in Guzerat.

21. TĀLIKAŢAS

The name is mentioned in the *Mahābhārata*¹¹ as Tālākaṭa along with Daṇḍaka. Tālikaṭa is equated with Talkāḍa or Talakāḍa which was the capital of the Gangas on the Kāveri thirty miles to the east of Mysore. 12

- 1 IV. 179, RT, I, p. 138.
- 2 VII. 520, RT, I, p. 310.
- ³ RT, I, p. 357, fn. 1149.
- 4 K8SR, I, p. 151 & 336.

- 6 EI. XXIII. 273. 7 EI. VIII. 79. 8 xiii. 25.50. 9 MT, p. 40. For KOLĀVANAS (No. 19) see infra p. 150. 10 MP, p. 338.
 - 11 ii. 31. 65. 12 DD, p
- 12 DD, preface p. iii & p. 202,

⁵ Kanaibadái Inscription, Kamarupasasanabali, p. 44. For JRNGAS (No. 15) see supra p, 103. For the VAISYAS (No. 16) it is difficult to assign any particular locality of importance. For MLECCHAS (No. 17) see supra p. 132.

22. PULEYAS or PULINDAS

They were a non-Aryan tribe of great antiquity. They are mentioned in the Aitareya $Br\bar{a}hmana_{n}^{1}$, and perhaps also in the inscriptions of Asoka if Buhler's identification of Palidas with the Pulindas stands². The tribe is copiously referred to in the $Mah\bar{a}$ - $bh\bar{x}rata^{3}$ as well as in the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana^{4}$. Other sources point to their settlement in the Himalayas intermixed with the Kīrātas⁵. A branch of them might have been living in the west on the Aravalli Hills⁶.

But Pulindas also lived in the south, for in the Purāṇas they are associated with the Vindhyan region. The Kathā-S-Sāgara similarly describes the Pulindas as a people of the Vindhya hills. In the Mahābhārata mention is made of a Dakṣiṇa Pulinda-nagara. Dr. H. C. Raychaudhury thinks that it was identical with Rūpnāth, the find spot of one recension of MRE. I. of Aśoka. Rūpnāth lay not far from Bhilsa in the east. The Pulinda-rāja-rāṣṭra of the Navagrāma Grant of the Mahārāja Hastin. is considered equivalent to the Nagod State of Bundelkhand and the northern part of the modern Central Provinces.

The tribe is mentioned by Ptolemy as Poulindai¹². In the Ajaigarh rock inscription the Pulindas along with the Bhils and Sabaras are described as wild tribes¹³. Epic notices of the people bear out that they were Mlecchas and were an aboriginal tribe. They were a wicked and degraded people and practised evil customs¹⁴. In the Kathā-S-Sāgara, they are represented as looking for human victims to offer to Durgā the presiding deity of the Vindhya hills.¹⁵

23. SURĀLAS.

Pargiter connects the name with an ancient Jewish colony that existed on the Bombay coast before the 2nd century A.D. ¹⁶ But Sheerwal, a town in the Satara district in the Bombay Presidency probably preserves the name unaltered. The name, however, is not to be found in ordinary Indian literature. ¹⁷

- 1 vii. 18. 2 Hultzeh, Asoka, p. 48, fn. 14. 8 VI. 9.39-40.
- 4 iv. 43. 11; S. Levi, Pre-Aryan etc., trans. by P. Bagohi, pp. 88-90.
- 5 MP, p. 316. 6 MP, p. 338. 7 Mat. 114. 48; Va. 55. 126; Mbh., vi. 9. 62 8 KSSR, I, p. 42, 74, 148; II, p. 380.
 - 9 ii. 29. 10. 10 PHAI, p. 258. 11 EI. XXI. 126.
 - 12 MT, p. 156. 13 EI, I, 337, v. 22. 14 MP, p. 835.
- 15 KSSR, II, p. 380. 16 MP, p. 338. 17 For the RUPASAS (No. 24) there is hardly any reliable notice. The TAPASAS (No. 25) may refer to the ascetice living in the Ujjayanta-giri (BR, II, p. 269).

26 KURUMINAS.

The name may be a transliteration of Karmānā, the name of a country mentioned in the Susa Palace Inscription of Darius 1. Karmania or Kerman in Persia 'comprised the modern provinces of Laristan, Kirman and Moghostan' along the coast. 2 The Karmanian desert was "one of the most awful regions on the face of the earth". The identification may be doubted, but it may be stressed that the Pāradas, Turuṣkas and other such people of the distant west have been included in this list.

27. KARASKARAS.

They are mentioned in the *Dharmasūtra* of Baudhāyana as an impure tribe.

28. NĀSIKĀVYAS

This refers to the form Nāsikakas³ i.e. the natives of Nasik, situated in the central division of the Bombay Presidency. Nasik is mentioned by Patanjali and might have been known also as Govardhana.5 Govardhana was a name of considerable antiquity as it is mentioned in the Nasik Cave-inscription of Ushavadāta 6 The Kalvan plates of Yasovarman gives us the name Śvetapāda, which corresponded to the northern part of the modern Nasik district. The Abhona (a village in the Kalvan taluk of the Nasik district) Plates of Sankaragana, K.S. 347, indicate that Bhogavarddhana9 which is the same as Bhokardhan, the north-eastern taluk of Aurangabad district, at one time formed part of Nasik. in the Grant was a resident of Kallavana which was the same as the Kalvan taluk of the district. Kalvan, a place of great importance, is frequently, mentioned in Nasik inscriptions. The natives of this place are meant under the entry Kolavanas (No. 19) of the Western Division.

The Nripan plates found in Igatpuri of the Nasik district mention a village named Balegrāma of the Goparāṣṭra-viṣaya. As the village has been traced in the modern Igatpuri-taluk of Nasik, it follows that Goparāṣṭra-viṣaya formed a part of ancient Nasik, although in

¹ SI. 4. fn. 3. 2 MA, p. 187, fn. 1; p. 92, fn. 2; p. 82, fn. 4.

³ Luders' List, No. 1142 & 1144. 4 Kielhorn's edn; 111, 307, 319

⁵ PHAI, p. 414 & 419. 6 EI. VIII. 79 cf. The Daulatabad plates of a Rastrakūta king (EI. IX. 194, fn. 1.). 7 EI. XIX. 93-4 lines 17-31.

⁸ EI. IX. 299. 9 The name occurs in the list of the Southern Division (No 80) The Barbut inscriptions mention Bhogavadham (Barus and Sinha, Barbut Ins. p. 15).

the eighth century A. D. it was included under the wider territorial division of Purī-Konkaṇa. 1 Another ancient Viṣaya of Nasik was Vaṭanagara which is mentioned in a Grant of Govinda III: Nāsika-deśīya Vaṭnagara-viṣayā. 2 Vaṭanagara is identified with the modern Wani in the Dindori taluk of Nasik.

29. NARMADĀ.

The famous river of this name was known to Ptolemy as Namados.³ The Padma Purāņa says that it rises in the Amarakaṇṭaka Mountain.⁴ An inscription refers to Narmadā-taṭa-maṇḍala and its city Brāhmaṇapāṭaka. The alternative name Revā, according to Weber, can be traced in the word Revottaras of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁶

30. BHÄRUKACCHAS.

In a Buddhist Cave-inscription we have the form Bharukachhakas, i.e. the inhabitants of Bharukaccha 7 In Sanskrit, the territorial name is Bhrgukaccha which means 'high coast land', and survives in modern Broach, 30 miles from the sea on the north side of the Narmada. From the Pali texts and from the author of Periplus (c. 80 A.D.), we know that in ancient times it was a trading town of great commercial importance. Ptolemy (c. 150 A. D.) knew it as Barygaza⁸, and Alberuni writes that Bhiroj (i.e. Bharukaccha) was the capital of Lardesh.9 Damascenus speaks of a native of Bargosa, the Barygaza of the Greeks. 10 In the 'Life' it is stated that Hiuen Tsang reached the kingdom of Po-lu-Kie-Chen-Po (Barochi) going north west from Maharastra 11 and the distance recorded points to Broach. 12 Of the inhabitants it is written that they boil the seawater to get salt, and their sole profit is from the sea. 13 From the Grant of the Gujara king Jayabhata 14, it is known that in the 8th century A.D., Bharukaccha as a territorial name was the designation of a Vişaya. The Plates of Buddharaja refer to the village of Kumārivadāo (Karwara, some miles south-east from Baroda) in the Gorajja-bhoga (modern Goraj) of the Bhārukaccha-viṣaya¹⁵, which shows that the Vişaya included modern Baroda in the north.

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1 EI. XXV, 228, 230 & 234. 2 IA. XI, 159 & 7 lines 39-40
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³ MT. p. 38. 4 Svarga, 6, 22 5 IA. XVIII. 83, lines 2, 3 & 8-11.

⁶ Ved. Ind., II 226. 7 Luders' List No. 1169, 8 MT. p. 153

⁹ Al. I. 205. 10 Priaulx, op. cit. p. 78. 11 BH. p. 147.

¹² YO, II, p. 241. 13 BR, II, p. 259.

¹⁴ El. XXIII. 148.

¹⁵ Ef. VI. 295.

The $Kath\bar{a}$ -S-Sagara states that there was a province called Vakakaccha on the bank of the Narmadā. 1

31. MÄREYAS

They were the people who dwelt on the banks of the river Mahi. It was known to Ptolemy as Mophis² 'which flows into the gulf of Khambat about 35 miles north from the estuary of the Narmada.' In the Bhīṣma Parva list of the Mahābhārata mention is made of Māhika and Māheya as two janapadas.³

32. SĀRASVATAS

This refers to the river Sarasvati which rising in Mt. Abu runs westward towards the Runn of Cutch.

33. KACCHĪYAS

The Kaccha countries represented the water logged portions of the sea-coast extending from the gulf of Cambay to Broach including the delta-areas of Sabarmati, Mahi and Narmada. Pāṇini's reference to country names ending in Kaccha⁵ may refer to Dāru-Kaccha (Kathuawar)⁶, Pippalī-Kaccha (Rajpipla) and Bhṛgu-Kaccha (Broach). But Kaccha again is separately mentioned by Pāṇini as a janapada⁷, and is described as an anusamudra dvīpa. This agrees with the reference to the Sāgaradvipa in the Mahābhārata, the Sigerdis of Strabo. Both Cutch and Kathiawar originally seem to have been islands, Cutch in particular is referred to in the lexicon of Hemachandra to illustrate what is anupo'mvumān, i e. a tract of land near water. 10

An inscription of V.S. 1086, refers to Kaccha-mandala¹¹, the Muhammadan writers know it as Kassa.¹² According to a Jaina work of the 12th century Kacch desa was 32 kos from Sorath desa, and it is further recorded, that the people used to wear a searf in memory of a political victory.¹³

34. SURĀSŢRAS

The name occurs in the *Mahābhārata* and in the *Jātakas*¹⁴. According to Kautilya, they formed a corporation of warriors¹⁵ and lived

- 1 KSSR, I, p. 36, 40. 2 MT, p. 104,
- 3 Dr. D. C. Siroar connects it with the river Sarsuti (IFQ. XXI. 310, fn. 88) This is clearly against the context. 4 IHQ. XXIV 177-178.
- 5 IV. 2. 126. 6 Daru being wood the name works as Küştha-Kaccha, whence Kathiawar. 7 IV. 2. 133. 8 IV. 3. 10.
 - 9 Periplus, p. 175. 1 Abhidbans, p. 380, v. 19.
 - 11 IA. VI. 193-4; XVIII. 109, L. 3. 12 DHNI, I, p. 7, fn. 5.
- 13 IA. IV. 74 & 77. 14 In the Rāmāyana the name is given as Saurāṣṭra (iv.42.6). 15 AS, p. 407.

by agriculture and trade. In the Dharma literature (4th century B. C.) the people are described as of mixed origin, but an ancient tradition ascribes the origin of the Sauryas of Sauraṣṭra to a prince of the Solar race. The Jaina $Up\bar{a}nga$ called the $Praj\bar{n}apan\bar{a}$, a book of considerable antiquity, includes 'Soriyan Kusaṭṭhā' in a list of the $\bar{A}riyaṣ.^3$ There is of course no corroborating evidence to connect the Soryas with the people of Sauraṣṭra, but Kusaṭṭha mentioned as the city of the Soryas in the Jaina $Up\bar{a}nga$, may be the same as Kuśasthali or Dwarakā. Sauraṣṭrakas also find mention in the $K\bar{a}mas\bar{a}tra$ of $V\bar{a}tsy\bar{a}yana.^4$

As the sea-board of western India was frequented by Alexandrian merchants from very early times we have many foreign notices of the name. In the 'Periplus' Syrastrene is described as a wealthy country. Hiuen Tsang recorded that the people of Su-la-ch'a derived their livelihood from the sea and were engaged in commerce and exchange of commodities. The acquisition of this country noted for its wealth and fertility had always been the policy of the imperial dynastics of India.

In literature and inscriptions, both the forms Suratha and Suraṣṭra are employed to designate either the whole or the lower half of Kathiawar. The Suraṭṭha-viṣaya of a Jaina work refers to Kathiawar in general, and so also does Suratha of the Nasik record of queen Gautamī. Suratha in the time of Hiuen Tsang was included in the Kingdom of Valabhi and perhaps corresponded to the lower half of Kathiawar excepting Bhavnagar, and extended up to the sea on the west. In the Junagadh Rock inscription of Rudradāman, the two ancient divisions of Kathiawar known as Ānarta and Surāṣṭra are mentioned. The Ānarta country obtained its name from an eponymous ancestor Ānarta, its chief city being Kuŝasthalī or Dwārakā. This makes it equivalent to the Hālār division of Kathiawar.

¹ Baudhāyana Dhar. Sāt., I i. 32-33, ed. by E. Hultzech, Dresden 1884, p. 3. 2 AR, XII, 93. 3 IA. XX. 275. 4 VK8, p. 300.

⁵ Sec. 41. p. 176. 6 YC, 17, pp. 248-49. Hiven Tsang said that Suratha lay to the west of Valabhi. It is difficult to understand how the chief city of Suratha bordered on the Mahi river on the west (BR, II. p. 269).

⁷ PHAI, p. 360. 8 EI. VIII. 61. See also EI. XXIV. 146, fn. and p.147.

⁹ Matsya Purāṇa, 12.22; HV, i.10.33. The Skanda Purāṇa (ii.7.7.32) refers to the city of Bhūbara of Ānarta. In the Bhūgavata Purāṇa (i.10 35) Ānarta and Dwārakā are treated as synonymous. 10 For other views see PHAI, p. 424, fn. 3. Kuśasthali and Dvārāvatī were two names of the same town lying under the shadow of the Raivataka or Gomanta bill (IHQ. X. 541 ff.).

Surastra was thus the name for the lower half of the peninsula. The Junagadh inscriptions prove that Junagadh was in the heart of ancient Surastra country. 1 The evidence of many other epigraphs of the Christian era indicates that Surastra was conterminous with the lower half of Kathiawar. Thus the Bantia plates (Valabhi Samvat 257=C. 573 A. D.) of Dharasena II mention Kaundinyapura (Kodinār in S. Kathiawar) of Surastra2. In a Grant of Dharasena III of about the same age (Valabhi Samvat 304), mention is made of Hasta-vapraāhāra i.e., modern Hātab in Bhavnagar state, of the Surāstra-vişaya3. From the Jesar Plates of Sīlāditva III (666-67 A. D.), we learn that Kalāpaka-pathaka was included in the Surāstra country: Surāstresu $Ka(\bar{a}) l\bar{a}paka pathak\bar{a}$. The place name Kalapaka-pathaka which is the modern 'Kālāvāda', 60 miles NW. of Porbandar, is also mentioned in the Bhavnagar Plates of Dharsena III referred to above.5 Similarly, the inclusion of the southern extremity of Kathiawar within ancient Surāstra is proved by an inscription of the Saka year 1107 (=1185 A. D.) which refers to the temple of Somnātha of Saurāstra-deśa: Saurāstrauya Srīsomanāthadevāya6. Another inscription of V. S. 1266 (=1208 A. D.) again refers to the inclusion of Vāmanasthalī i. e. modern Vanthali in the Junagadh Surastra-mandala. So Bhavnagar, Porbandar and Somnath as noticed above, were the limits in three directions of the Surastra country in the mediaeval period.

These observations indicate that Surastra and Anarta both shared a portion of Junagadh.

1 Cf. The Junagadh inscription of Skandagupta (CII. III. 63, line 9).

2 EI. XXI. 179-80.

3 Ibid. 181-83, L. 28.

⁴ Ibid, 210, L. 49. 5 Ibid. 183, L. 30. 6 EI, XXIII, 277-78, L. 3.

⁷ IA. XVIII. 110-13, IV. 73. 8 For ĀVANTYAS (No. 35) see supra pp. 67 ff., and for ARBUDAS (No. 36) see supra pp. 96-97.

CHAPTER VII

THE EASTERN DIVISION (See Chart No. VI)

The lists of this division are complete: the text of the Brsam. group seems to be correct and full and all the lists agree fairly well with one another. As many as five names of the text of the Bream. group also occur in almost all the lists of the Vā. group. the account of Parasara most of the names of the Brhat-sanihita are enumerated; but there are also insertions of new names which remain uncorroborated. The account of the Mark (K), in the Bream, group is defective because it omits many names of the Brsam. list and inserts But the accounts of Parasara and ones in their place. Mark (K). taken together corroborate the list of the Brhat-sainhita. Thus Nos. 8, 9, 10 and 11 of the Bream. list, which are omitted by Parāśara are mentioned by the Mārk (K)., while Nos. 3. 6, 14, 15, 20, 25 and 26 of the Brsam. list which are omitted by the Mark (K). are mentioned by Parasara. The different lists of the Va. group are also exhaustive and detailed. They have a large measure of agreement and form a complete version. There are insertions and slight tamperings here and there; the result has been that the order has not been strictly uniform. The list of the Natyaśastra is fairly exhaustive. Though it follows a different order, almost all its names occur in the other lists of this division; and the record on the whole is a valuable one and in many points an independent authority. Similar is the account of the $K\bar{a}vyam\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}\dot{m}s\bar{a}$. In fact, the lists of the $K\bar{a}vyam\bar{\imath}$ māmsā and Nātyašāstra do not follow any stereotyped order in the narration of names like the Va. and Brsam.; yet they lend considerable support to the version of the Va. and the Brsam. texts, and hence they are manifestly of great importance. The accounts of the Kūr. and Vis. are of no use. The Garuda's account, though not exhaustive is not misleading. The Vāmana's list subject to some shortcomings is in close agreement with the text of the Va. group. The number of ethnic names and countries given by the various lists of the two texts is shown below:

Brsam. Parāšara. Mārk(k). | Vā. Mat. Mārk. Br. Vam. Gad. Nātya. Kāvya. 33 37 29 | 18 17 19 19 20 7 21 16.

As observeed before, the whole list of the B_rhat -samhitā may be included in this division which, therefore, means the inclusion of the list of Parāśara and Mārk (k), with the exception of those names in

the two accounts which do not occur in either of the remaining two lists of the group. The different lists of the Va. group from a distinct version obviously differing from that of the Brsam. text. The number recorded are almost the same, and the order subject to some variations is in perfect harmony. Names common to the two texts, the Va. and the Brsam, are five, while others are distinctly new. This independent account of the Va. group begins with the Andhravākas of the Vā. and Mārk. lists and proceeds in the same order and number up to the Gomantas, (No. 18) with this variation that the Vā. does not mention the Bhārgavas and Madras. As pointed out before, the Br. follows the Mark. the only difference being the variant readings of some four names which, however, appear to be mistaken readings of the same word and not new entries. The list of Matsya is manifestly defective for the simple reason that it differs from the Va. It has another very serious defect namely, that the order has been changed. It begins to record not with the Andhras like the other accounts of its group, but with the Angas, a people who are fifth in the order. The Vāmana conforms to the text of the Vā. group in the same order and form, with very slight variations. The whole list of the Va. may therefore, be admitted into this division.

The following ethnic names and countries belonged to the Eastern Division according to the text of the Brsam. group:—

- (1) Anjana-Giri, (2) Vṛṣabhadhvaja-Giri, (3) Padma-Giri,
- (4) Mālyavat-Giri, (5) Vyāghramukhas, (6) Suhmas, (7) Karvaţas,
- (8) Candrapuras, (9) Śūrpakarņas, (10) Khasas, (11) Magadhas,
- (12) Sibira-Giri, (13) Mithilā or Videhas, (14) Samatața, (15) Udras¹,
- (16) Asvavadanas, (17) Danturakas, (18) Prāg-Jyotişas, (19) Lauhityas, (20) Kṣīroda-Samudra², (21) Puruṣādas³, (22) Udaya.Giri,

¹ They are not mentioned by the Mark (k), (See chart), but Dr. Kirfel puts the Subhras of Mark (k), against the Udras (DKDI, p. 82). Subhra perhaps represents Sibira-giri of the Brssm. list (No. 12), as shown in the chart.

^{*} Kern divides the name into two parts, Kṣīroda and Samudra, but the two should be combined together making it Kṣīroda-Samudra—a reading which occurs in Parāśara text. The Mārk (k), does not mention this name, yet Dr. Kirfel shows that the Mārk (k), refers to Samudra (No. 18) as representing Kṣīroda of the Bream. liet (DKDI, p. 82).

3 Pargiter combines the two names Samudra and Puruṣāda into one, and translates it as 'Cannibals who dwell on the sea coast'. This is erroneous, for there is no connection between the two (MP, p. 357). Samudra is clearly a part of the name in No. 20. This is also supported by Parāśara.

- (23) Bhadras, (24) Gaudakas¹, (25) Paundras, (26) Utkalas,
- (27) Kāśis, (28) Mekalās, (29) Ambaşthas². (30) Ekapadas
- (31) Tāmaliptikas (32) Kośalakas, (33) Vardhamāna.

According to the text of the Va. group the following belonged to this division:—

- (34) Andhras³, (35) Mudgaras, (36) Antargiryas, (37) Vahīrgiryas,
- (38) Angas⁴, (39) Vangas⁵, (40) Maladas, (41) Mālavārttikas,⁶
- (42) Brahmottaras, (43) Pravijayas, (44) Jheyamarthakas,
- (45) Mallas, (46) Gomantas 10, (47) Bhargavas, (48) Madras. 11
- Pargiter (Ibid. p. 357) takes the name Bhadra as adjective to the Gaudas, but other texts show that they are to be treated as two different names. We have already discussed the Bhadras as a people of the Central Division (See supra pp. 22 ff),

 Pargiter's suggestion that (Ibid. 358) they refer to the one and the same people namely 'Mekalāmbaṣthas' is not borne out by the evidence of the other texts.
- 3 This is a famous name of Indian ethnography. 'Vaka' of Alberuni (AI, I. 299) is in reality a suffix of Andhra.

 4 Except only the Vām. and the Vā. which read Pravanga, all other accounts have the reading Anga, and since the two texts in question put Pravanga in the same order and setting, as in other texts, i.e. after the Vahīrgiryas and before the Vangas, it becomes clear that Anga and Pravanga were considered identical. The tabulation also shows that the Vām. records Anga (No. 1), by which it means Pravanga (No. 6). The word Pravanga may also be a mistaken reading of the name Angas as the Br. reads clearly: Tathā pare Angā, i.e. after them are the Angas. Again, if the word Pravanga stands for a separate name it might refer to the people who were living to the west of the Vangas i.e. the Angas (For a different meaning, see HAIB, p. 85; MP, p 325). Dr. D. C. Sirear shows Pravanga to be a separate name altogether (IHQ XXI. 305, fn. 49).
- 6 The name has been widely corrupted, the reading accepted here is suggested by the variants of the name, and is also indirectly supported by the text of the Kāvyamīmānsā and Nātyasāstra.

 7 Dr. B. C. Law thinks that the name is Suhmottara (TAI, p. 391) but the name Brahmottara is known to us from other sources.

 8 P. C. Sen suggests (IHQ. VIII. 534) that the reading should be Prabhrtayah as in the Nātyasāstra. But all the Purāṇas fairly agree in the reading taken. The other suggestion that the name is Srīvijaya i.e. mod. Palembang in Sumatra (IHQ, XXI. 306) is pure conjecture.
- 9 It is impossible to restore the original name for all the texts seem to have blundered in this entry. Alberuni's confusion about these words is even more worse (op. cit.). For the variants noted by Dr. Kirfel, see DKDI, p. 74. Also, see IHQ. XXI, 306, fn. 53. 10 The reading Gonarda though very probable (1HQ. XXI, 306, fn. 56) does not agree with the context. 11 Kalinga and Nepala are not mentioned by the texts of the Brsam. group and the Va. group in this division; they are included in this division only by the Kāvyamīmāmsā and Nātyašāstra texts. So the names are not shown here.

1. AÑJANA-giri.

This one, and the three hills following, seem to be misplaced here. Dr. Agarwala says that Sālvakā-giri (Hālā range), Añjanā-giri (Sulaiman mountain with its triple chain called Trikakut), Bhanjanā-giri Koh-i-Bābā), Lohitā-giri (Hindu kush), Kukkuţā-giri (low peaks in the crest of Afganistan), as mentioned in the Ganapātha represented the chain of mountains running from Afghanistan to Baluchistan. We have, in this text of the Brsam. group, Anjana-giri followed by Vṛṣabhadhvaja, Padma and Mālyavat-giri (No. 4), the last one being identical with Mālāvat of Patañjali (II. 287) corresponding to Malākanda, the mountainous district of Dargai in Swat1. in this set of names, which the Brhat-samhita has adopted from the geographical tradition known to Panini, we have a reference to the mountains of the west rather than of the east. This is an instance of how geographical traditions, owing to their transmission through ages, have suffered corruptions. Vrsabhadhvaja-giri and Padma-giri are not known to be mountains of the east though local hills of such names existed.2

6. SUHMAS.

They are a well-known people of antiquity and are mentioned in all kinds of texts. According to the Jaina Kalpa Sūtra Subbabhūmi is said to have been visited by Mahāvīra. The Jaina Bhagavatī-sūtra mentions Sambhuttara which perhaps stands for the northern Suhma country. The people and a branch of them called Pra Suhmas appear in the Mahābhārata. The citation of the name Suhma in the Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali shows that it was well-known in the 2nd century B. C. In a Jātaka story mention is made of the Sumbha town Desaka. The name Suhma occurs in the work of Bāṇabhaṭṭa (Harṣa-carita) and in the Pavanadūta by Dhoyīka (12th century A. D.); in the latter work Suhma is placed on the bank of the Ganges. The Suhma country was situated near the sea-coast:

- 1 IHQ. XXIX. 5-7.
- ² Vṛṣabhaṣṛṇga was one of the hills of Girivraja (Mbh; ii.21.2). The Agni Purāṇa refers to a Padma country of the east (IHQ. IX. 475). See also KSSR, I, p. 152. The VYĀGRAMUKHAS (No. 5) were a mythical people.
 - 3 SBE, Book I, Chap. 8. Sec. 3; SBE, XXII, 1.8.3, pp. 84-85.
 - 4 Supra p. 31, fn. 1. 5 ii. 30. 16. 6 IV. 2. 52.
- 7 CJ, I, p. 232. The Samyutta Nikāya makes mention of the Sumbha country, and its town Setaka or Sedak # (PT. V, pp. 89 and 168-70, V. 89).
 - JASB, 1905, pp. 45, 57.

Suhmānāma-dhipañcaiva ye ca sāgarānūpavāsinah. In the Daśa-kumāra-carita², Dāmalipta, i. e. Tāmralipta is stated to have been a city of Suhma. These allusions bear out that Suhma corresponded to a littoral portion of Bengal, possibly the modern Midnapore district, having had an extensive sea-board which made Tamluk a trading port of considerable importance.

But Suhma undoubtedly comprehended a wide region. Nīlakaņţha comments that Suhma and Rādhā were synonymous terms.3 This may not be strictly correct so far as the early geographical position of Suhma is concerned, for according to a tradition preserved in the Jaina Āchārānga sūtra4, one of the oldest books of the Jainas, Lādha (Rādha) is said to have been divided into two parts, Subbhabhūmi and Vajjabhūmi. Subbhabhūmi of the Jaina works is the same as Suhmabhūmi (land of the Suhmas) and responds to Sumbha of the Jātaka story. The natural presumption is that Suhma was a part of Rādha in very early times, perhaps only its southern portion, and corresponded to the modern districts of Howrah and Midnapore.5 Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury says that the Trivenī-Saptagrāma area in the Hooghly district was in the heart of the Suhma country.6 Rādha was thus a name of considerable antiquity as it was known to early Jaina tradition as Ladha, and was plausibly the geographical equivalent of Lala-rattha of the Ceylonese Chronicles. Rajasekhara

¹ Mbh., il. 30.25. cf. Raghu, iv. 34 and 35.

² Ch. vi, p. 244, ed. by Jivananda Vidyasagara. 3 Commentary on Mbh., ii. 30.16. The lexicographer Yādavaprakāśa also identifies Rādhā with Suhma (VJN, p. 37, v. 30). 4 SBE, XXII, 1, 8, 3, pp. 84-85.

⁵ P. C. Sen, 1HQ. VIII. 527. The other division Vejjabhūmi cannot be satisfactorily identified. N. L. De, equates it with Vijayabhūmi (IHQ. 1V. 44-45) and identifies the latter with the modern districts of Manbhum and Singhbhum. Dr. B. C. Sen thinks that it was a synonym for Vîrabhümi or Birbhum (HAIB, pp. 49-55). Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury connects it with Sarkar of Madaran in south-west Bengal mentioned in the Ain-i-Akbari which was equivalent to parts of the modern Birbhum, Burdwan and Hooghly districts (DUHB. p. 9). Another writer says that Vajjabhumi is the same as Vanjabhumi and identifies the place with Mayurbhanj. The Ladhas according to the same writer were a hill tribe of Dhalbhum, Singhbhum, Mayurbhanj and Bamra (JAHRS. II. 91-92. See JBORS, March, 1927). 6 DUHB, p. 10. For 7 IA, XIII. 36. Saptagrāma, See R. D. Banerji in JABB. 1909, pp. 245 ff. The subject is discussed at great length by Dr. B. C. Sen (HAIB, pp. 46-49). Also see K. S. S. Sengar, in IHQ. III. whose conclusion is that it was Railha and not Lata. Dr. H.C. Ray Chaudhury identifies Radha of Sanskrit records with Lala of Pali chronicles and Ladha of the Jaina Sutras (DUHB. p. 39).

mentions both Suhma ($K\bar{a}vyam\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}\dot{m}s\bar{a}$) and $R\bar{a}dha$ ($Karp\bar{\imath}\iota rama\bar{n}jar\bar{\imath}$), but the use of the former was perhaps discontinued at a later age and $R\bar{a}dha$ used instead. In Somadeva's $Kath\bar{a}$ -S-S $\bar{a}gara^{\dagger}$ mention is made only of $R\bar{a}dha$, but not of Suhma.

The variants of the name Tamralipta are many? and both forms of the name (ethnic and territorial) are found in all texts. It was the greatest port of call and the different missions between India and Ceylon embarked and disembarked there. In the Mahābhārata it is called a Pattana.3 Tāmralipta also finds mention in the Geography of Ptolemy (C. 150 A. D.) as Tamalites. In authentic history, too, it appears as a port, whence the Chinese pilgrim Fa hien took ship to Ceylon. In Hiuen Tsang's time Tan-mo-lih-ti (Tamralipta) was about 1400 or 1500 li in circuit, which refers to the Suhma country; for Hiuen Tsang usually designates a country by the name of its city. He said that the country was formed by (or in) a recess of the sea-the water and the land embracing each other. The people were rich as wonderful articles of value and gems were collected there. The capital city of the same name which was washed by the sea indicates, that Tamralipta which is also commonly used as the name of a city, stood near the ocean in the 7th century A. D. In the Kathā-S-Sāgara (11th century), it is stated that Tāmralipta stood on the shore of the eastern sea5, and was inhabited by rich merchants and honourable men.6

But Tāmralipti⁷ may have been important enough to be regarded as a separate kingdom in the period of the *Mahābhārata*, although it formed a part of Vanga and Suhma, according to Jaina writers and Dandin respectively. A passage makes separate mention of Tāmra-

¹ KSSR, II, p. 216, 228. 2 S. Levi, Pre-Aryan and Pre-Dravidian India, trans. by P. Bagchi, p. 116, ff; HAIB, pp. 40 ff. See also Abhidhāna, p. 391, v. 45; and TKS, p. 31. 3 Mbh (B)., i. 179.13. A Pattana is a town on the confluence of some rivers which had a royal seat (JBORS, 1916, II, pp. 48 ff.). 4 YC, II, p. 189; BR, II, p. 201.

⁵ KSSR, II, p. 265; I, p. 139, In the same work mention is made of other such cities situated on the border of the sea from which distant oceanic voyages were undertaken. They are—Viṭankapura (I, pp. 206-207, 225), Putrapura (I, p. 489, 491), Sāgarapura (I, pp. 510-11), Jalapura (I, p. 551). Cf. also Velā-Kulain Tāmaliptain (TKS, p. 31).

⁶ KSSR, II, p. 248,

⁷ This form is found in the Dudhpani Rock inscription (EI. II. 344) of the 8th century. For Tamralipta see HAIB, pp. 38-43.

lipta, Karvāṭa, and Suhma¹. These three names occur much in the same setting in our text. Karvāṭa (No. 7) is an unfamiliar name but its grouping and the context clearly suggest that it was another city of Suhma, just as Tāmralipta was, and presumably a centre of the Jaina faith.² Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury is inclined to identify the Karvāṭas with the Kharwārs of West Bengal.³

8. CĀNDRAPURAS

The position of Candrapura is uncertain. There are many localities of this name in the eastern part of India. Six miles to the east of Deoghar there is a place called Candpur full of Jaina ruins. 4 Such and Brahmanical a location the conditions in a general way. J. C. Ghosh pointed out that the 'Srīmatottara-tantra' makes mention of a Chandrapura of Candradvīpa. He connected Candrapura of the Tantra text with the place of this name mentioned in the Brhat-sainhita, and Phandradvipa of the Copper-plate Grant of Viśvarūpasena, and was of opinion that it was the same as the modern Chandpur of the Tipperah district. But as Candrapura of our text is placed between Karvata and Magadha it has to be located somewhere between Bengal and Behar.6

11. MAGADHAS

The name of the people is one of the most famous in Indian ethnography. 'Kīkaṭa' which finds mention in the Rgveda was the oldest name of Magadha, for the evidence of later literature makes Magadha identical with Kīkaṭa. Though derisively mentioned in the Vedic texts, a Jaina $Up\bar{x}nga$ refers to Magadha in a group of the Āriyas, and even records that Rājagiha was the chief city of the Magadhas. The accounts of the $R\bar{a}m\bar{u}yana$ and the $Mah\bar{a}-bh\bar{a}rata$ differ regarding the origin of the Magadha kingdom, but

- 1 Mbh., ii. 30.21 ff. Similarly Rājašekhara makes separate mention of Suhma and Tāmaliptaka (Kāvya, p. 93).
 - 3 IHQ. VIII. 529-530. 3 DUHB. p. 9, fn. 1. 4 AR. X. 9.3.
- 5 IHQ. IV. 641-42. 6 The $S\overline{U}RPAKARNAS$ (No. 9) were a mythical people, for KHASAS (No. 10) see supra p. 128.
- ⁷ PHAI, p. 95, fn. 5, p. 96. Abhidhāna, p. 383; TKS. p. 31, *Vaijayantī* (VJN, p. 37, v. 31). For Kīkata see also HAIB, p. 3, fn. 5; TAI, p. 387.
- Samaddar, Glories of Magadha, pp. 5 ff; B. C Law, Ancient Indian Tribes, 1926, p. 93, and pp. 112 ff; Ved. Ind., II. 116-18; ABORI. VIII. 159 ff. Dr. B. C. Sen observes that Magadha was an important stronghold of the *Vrātyas* (HAIB, pp. 5 ff.).

⁹ MP, p. 330.

both agree in stating that Girivraja was the original capital, which is thus in accord with the Jaina tradition noted above. Girivrajanagara of the Mahābhārata¹ is also designated as Māgadha-pura² and Bārhadratha-pura³, while according to the Rāmāyaṇa its other name was Vasumatī named after the founder of Girivraja⁴. The Chinese name of the city such as the Kiu-she-kie-lo-pu-lo (Kuśāgarapura or "the royal city of best grass") of Hiuen Tsang⁵, and the name Bimbasāra-purī of Buddhist writers⁶ were obtained from the name of early Magadhan Princes. Girivraja is the same as Rājagṛha or modern Rajgir surrounded by hills in the Bihar subdivision of Patna. Rājagṛha figures prominently in the Pāli texts. Down to the time of Buddha it was considered as one of the six great cities of India¹, and in a Buddhist lexicon Rājagaha is placed in a list of twenty ancient cities. §

The name of the famous capital of Magadha, Pāṭaliputra occurs in the annals of classical writers as Palibothra, the capital of the Prasii which is the Greek form of Palāsa or Parāsa a well-known name of Magadha⁹. It was a large wealthy city situated where the streams of the Erannobaos and the Ganges unite. ¹⁹ The position of Magadha is indicated in a passage of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$, which places it to the east of the confluence of the Ganges and the Son. ¹¹ The $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}ya_{1}a$ obviously refers the river Son in the statement that the river Māgadhī encircles Magadha like a garland. ¹²

Ancient Magadha embraced the country bounded on the north by

¹ i. 204. 17; fi 30. 17.

² ii. 20. 30. ³ ii. 24. 44. ⁴ i. 32. 7-8.

⁵ BR, II, p. 149. In a Buddhist chronicle the Ārya-Mañjukrī-mūlakalpa Kuśāgrapura is mentioned as a city of the Magadhas (AMKLP, p. 597, v. 2).

⁶ PHAI, p., 95, fn. 2. 7 Supra p. 41, fn. 12.

s Supra p. 41, fn. 11. 9 In the Sabda-Kalpadruma, Palāsa is given as a name of Magadha (III, p. 1984), But the Gk, Prasii. according to some scholars responds to the Skt. Pracya (Wilson, Theatre of the Hindus, II, p. 135; JASB. 1845, p. 147), and indeed, Magadha which is indicated to have been in the Prasii territory was a Prācya country.

^{1°} MM, pp. 141, 210-14, fn. Cunningham says that the Erannobaos is the same as the Son both as to name and position (CAGI, p, 520). The Gk. name is equated with Hiranyavaha or Hiranyavaha (Erannobaos) which according to Indian tradition was the name of the Sona (Abhidhana, p. 162). So Sonus and Erannobaos were not two distinct rivers as mentioned by Arrian and Megasthenes.

11 ii. 20, 27-29.

12 i. 32, 8-9.

the river Ganges, on the west by the river Son, on the east by Anga, and on the south by a dense forest. The Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsang testifies to the fertility of the soil of Magadha and records that the people were simple and honest and were highly learned. In the Kathā-S-Sāgara. Pāṭaliputra is frequently mentioned as a seat of learning.

During the Pāla period some portions of Magadha were constituted into a Bhukti known as Śrīnagara-bhukti. Its Viṣayas so far known were Gayā-viṣaya⁴, Krimilā-viṣaya⁵ and Rājagṛha-viṣaya⁶. The Śrīnagara-bhukti comprehended the entire Patna division of modern times, which as a district included Rājgir and as a division, Gaya, and consequently embraced a considerable portion of Magadha. We have also reference to Magadha-viṣaya which included Nālāndā. Evidently, Magadha-viṣaya was a part of the Śrīnagara-bhukti.

12. SIBIRA-GIRI

Its identity is not very clear. Is it to be connected with the Sivi settlement in the mountain district of Seweya⁹, situated a few miles south or south-east of Kasia?

13. MITHILĀ

Mithilā was the famous capital of the ancient kingdom of Videha. In the Mahāgovinda Suttanta of the Dīgha Nikāya, Videha, with its capital Mithilā, is treated as one of the seven political divisions of India then existing. 10 According to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, Videha was separated from Kośala by the river Sadānīrā. The river is usually identified with the river Gandak which joins the Ganges opposite Patna, 11 and forms the western boundary of the Muzaffarpur district. The contiguity of the Videha country to the river Gandak is perhaps implied in such combinations as: Gandakīyāmśca Videhā-mśca. 12 The southern boundary was evidently the Ganges. The ancient Videha country included the modern districts of Champaran,

¹ CH. I. 182. 2 BR, II, p. 87; BH. p. 101.

³ KSSR, II, p. 115.

⁴ EI. XXIII. 290. The Gaya stone inscription dated in the 5th year of king Vigrahapāla refers to Gayā-maṇḍala.

5 EI. XVIII. 306, v. 30.

⁶ EI. XVII. 324. 7 DHNI, I, p. 846.

Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury says that Magadha-visaya was only a part of Magadha-bhukti (DUHB, p 23). 9 Supra p. 92. 10 Supra p. 49. fn. 10.

¹¹ IG. XVIII. 94. For the river Sadānīrā and its identity with Rapti, see supra. p. 63 and fn. 6.

¹² Mbh., ii. 29, 4.

Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga, i. e., Tirhut¹, and presumably also a portion of Purnea, if the eastern limit was the river Kausaki (Kosi). This agrees with a statement of the Bṛhat Viṣṇu-Purāṇa which is as follows: Videha extended from the river Gaṇḍak to the river Kauśikī and from the Ganges to the Himalayas. Early Jaina writers knew Mithilā to be the capital of the Videhas³. In the Jātakas⁴ and in the epic⁵ we have references to Mithilā as the capital of Videha.

The $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ describes it as :—Gopurāṭṭālakavatīṁ harmmya $pr\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra\acute{s}obhan\bar{a}m$, and as containing : $Pai_nya\acute{s}ca$ bahubhiryuktāṁ subibhakta $mah\bar{a}path\bar{a}n^6$. The Buddhist lexicon $Abhidh\bar{a}nappad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$ places Mithilā in a list of twenty ancient cities of India. Like other capital cities Mithilā might have grown in extent and power, as Hemacandra records : $Videh\bar{a}$ $mithil\bar{a}$ same.

Mithilā, which has been identified with the small town of Janak-pur within the Nepal border was, according to tradition, named after the second king Mithi Janaka of the Videha dynasty⁸. The kings of Mithilā were styled Mithilas.⁹ The Bhāgavata refers to the Maithilas in general and says that they were skilled in the knowledge of the Ātman.

It is to be observed that while Brahmanical tradition makes Videha a kingdom of early times, in the Buddha's time it was a republic. The Videhas along with the Licchavis, Jñātṛikas, Ugras, Bhogas and others were some of the constituent confederate clans (atthakula)

¹ The lexicographer Yādavaprakāśa identifies Videha with Tîrabhukti (VJN. p. 37, v. 30) which is also supported by Puruṣottomadeva who adds that Nicohavi (Licchavi), Videha and Tīrabhukti are synonymous terms (TKS, p.31). But the Licchavi country probably formed a part of Tīrabhukti and not its equivalent, A descriptive picture label of a certain illustrated manuscript dated 1015 A. D. which has a reference to this runs thus: Tīrabhuktau Vaišālītārā (F1B, I, p 197, No. 43 and also No. 65). Tīrhut corresponds to Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga districts and perhaps parts of Monghyr in the Pāla period when it was known as Tīra-bhukti. It had within it a Viṣaya called Kakṣa-viṣaya (IA. XV. 109, line 24). In a late Buddhist work the Ārya-mañjuṣrī-mūlakalpa the position of Tīrabhukti is thus defined: Gangāyū uttaratīre Tīrabhukti pati stadā (AMKLP, p. 282, v. 13a). See also History of Tīrhoot by S. N. Singha, Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta.

⁹ TAI, p. 239. ⁸ JA XX 375. ⁴ No. 264, CJ, II, p. 231.

⁵ Mbh; iii. 206. 6 ff.

⁶ Mbh., iii. 208. 6-9. 7 Abhidhana, p. 389., TK3, p. 32.

⁸ AIHT, pp. 05-96. ⁹ In an inscription we have the form Mithilas (EI. I, 132, vs. 23).

the Vajjis. 1 But of these the Licchavis and the Videhas were the most important, and the Licchavi capital Vesālī was the head-quarter of the powerful Vajjian confederation. 2 The Vajjis or Vṛjis are mentioned by Pāṇini; 3 Hiuen Tsang refers to the territorial name Vṛji in his $Fu-li-chih^4$ which was above 4000 li in circuit.

14. SAMATATA

Earliest mention of Samatata is found in the Allahabad Pillar inscription of Samudragupta, where it is grouped with Davaka and Kāmarūpa as one of the border states.⁵ This Pratyanta-Rājya or the frontier realm evidently lay outside the limits of Samudragupta's empire, which in the east seems to have been bounded by the line of the Brahmaputra river. The main stream of the old Brahmaputra, after skirting along the western side of the Garo Hills, flowed through Mymensingh and the eastern part of the Dacca district 6 and was joined in its lower course by the Meghna⁷ (Meghavahana)⁸; the com. bined waters added with the stream of the Padmā forming a mighty estuary.9 This mighty estuary, one of the greatest of world's waterways, easily formed a remarkable natural barrier and as such might have formed the eastern limit of Samudragupta's empire. Consequently, Assam, portions of Mymensingh and Dacca districts, and the whole of Tipperah and Noakhali districts are indicated to have been known as the Eastern Pratyanta-rajya of the 4th century A. D. This is the geographical background of Samatata and its

- 1 Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, pp. 25-26.
- 2 Ibid. 40. 3 IV. 2. 131. 4 YO, II, p. 81.
- 5 CII. III. 13. Mention is made of Samatata in the Atharva Parisinga (JBORS. 1919, p. 39) which is a late work.

 6 DUHB. pp. 4-5.
- In the 18th century in the time of Major Rennell the confluence of the Meghns with the Brahmaputra was near the village of Bhyrab Bazar in the Mymensing district. But the Jamuna which joins the Padma near Goalundo, is now the main channel of the Brahmaputra. For the river course of ancient Bengal see Dr. R. C. Majumdar, 'Physical Features' of Ancient Bengal (Dr. D. R. Bhandarker, Volume, pp. 341-364). W. W. Hunter, A Statistical Account of Bengal.
 - 8 DD, p. 130.
- ⁹ Dr. N. K. Bha tasali identified the Padmā with the Antibole course of the Ganges as mentioned by Ptolemy (Antiquity of the Lower Ganges and its courses, Science & Culture, VII, 1941, pp 233-39) Dr. D. C. Siroar suggests that the present Bhāgīrathī carried the main current of the Ganges as late as the seventh century A. D. (IHQ, XXVIII, 125).

connotative meaning the 'Shore Country', or 'Level Country' agrees well with the physical features of the area outlined.

It thus stands that Samatata in the Gupta period denoted a territory lying to the east of the Brahmaputra. In the traditional texts under review Samatata is distinguished from Vaiga (Eastern Division, No. 39). The Ashrafpur Plates of Devakhadga (7th century A. D.) refers to the royal residence as Karmanta, which has been identified by Dr. N. K. Bhattasali with modern Badkamta in the district of Tipperah, 12 miles to the west of the Comilla town.² As Rājarājabbatta of the Khadga dynasty, referred to in the Ashrafpur Plates, is generally identified with Rajabhata of Samatata mentioned in I-tsing's account, it may be conjectured that in the later part of the seventh century A. D. (date of the Khadga kings) Samatata comprised the Tipperah district. These are some grounds which indicate that the position of Samatata during the centuries following Samudragupta remained unchanged. It is in this light that we can interpret Hiuen Tsang's accounts of Samatata whose descriptions also answer to the time of the Ashrafpur Plates,—the age of Rajarajabhatta being not far removed from that of Hiuen Tsang.

Hiven Tsang visited the country of San-mo-ta-ta (Samataṭa), and the bearing south, and the distance 1,200, or 1,300 li south of Kāmarūpa, as recorded by the pilgrim 4, roughly agrees with the distance between the districts of Kamrup and Tipperahs. In his time it bordered on the great sea and was about 3000 li i.e. about 500 English miles in circuit. This area is equivalent to the whole level land bounded by the Garo and Khasi Hills on the north, the hills

l Cf. Samzethali of Abhidhāns, p. 379. In the Vaijayanti of Yadavaprakāša Samatata is made identical with Bhaurika (VJN, p. 37, v. 31).

² EI. XVII. 353, fn; JASB. 1914, pp. 85 ff. Dr. R. C. Majumdar, doubts this identification but does not suggest any other suitable alternative (DUHB. p. 87).

3 DUHB. p. 87.

⁴ YC, II, p. 187; BR, II, p. 199; BH, p. 132.

⁵ While going to Samatata Hiuen Tsang might have followed the circuitous course of the old Brahmaputra river and so was unable to make a proper estimate of the actual distance. If, however, he travelled 1250 li he covered 250 miles—a distance which is slightly in excess of the actual distance that separated the two districts. That 5 li is equal to one mile is evident from the recorded distance of Tamluk and Karnāsuvarna which is put at 700 li (YC, II, p. 192) i. e. 140 miles. The distance between Murshidabad and Tamluk is 120 miles as the crow files and hence the actual road distance is 120+20 (1/6 of 120)=140 miles.

of Tipperah and Chittagong on the east, the Bay of Bengal on the south, and the old course of the lower Brahmaputra river on the west. Geographically it is a perfectly natural unit 1 and satisfies all conditions etymological and physical. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury and Dr. R. C. Majumdar have adopted the theory that in Hiuen Tsang's time Samatata included even a considerable portion of Central Bengal in addition to Tipperah.² Dr. R. C. Majumdar is even more specific and states that the western boundary of Samatata was formed by the modern Gorai and Madhumati rivers. He also refers to the old identification of Samatata with the delta of the ganges which had for its chief city the site of modern Jessore as proposed by Cunningham. The main argument in support of the inclusion of a portion of lower Bengal within the boundaries of Samatata rests upon the distance from Samatata to Tamralipti as recorded by the Chinese pilgrim. From Samatata the "pilgrim journeyed west for over 900 li to Tamralipti".3

The provenance of the Samatața inscriptions now may be indicated. Samatața is mentioned in the Bhagalpur Grant of Nărăyanapâla. The Bāghāurā (Tipperah district) image inscription of the time of Mahīpāla⁵, the Nārāyanpur (Tipperah district) image (Gaņeśa) inscription of the 4th regnal year of Mahīpāladeva which refers to Vilikandhāka in Samataṭa⁶, and the Mehar (Chandpur) Copper-plate of Dāmodaradeva dated in 1234 A. D. which mentions Samataṭa-mandala prove the inclusion of Tipperah within Samataṭa⁸. Further, the Kailan inscription of Samataṭeśvara Śrīdharana Rāta (second half of the 7th cent.) definitely proves that one of the provincial headquarters of Samataṭa was Devaparvata which was certainly the name of a spur of the Mayanāmatī hills situated midway between Comilla

¹ EI. XVII. 353- 2 DUHB. p. 17; p. 85, fa. 4, and map facing p. 16. 3 YC, II. p. 189. 4 IA. XV. 304 ff. 5 EI. XVII. 353.

⁶ DUHB. page on 'Additions and corrections' following p. XXXI.

⁷ Bhāratavarsa, Āṣāḍa, 1348 B. S., p. 87, fn.; DUHB. p. 17.

⁸ We have also the following notice regarding Samatata in a picture label of an illustrated manuscript of the lith century (FIB, I, p. 192):—Campitalā-Lokanāthaḥ Samāta/eāriṣasthāna. This refers to the village Chāpitalā of the Tipperah district. In another such notice of the same manuscript we have the following line: Samataṭe Jayatunga-Lokanātha (Ibid. p. 200, No. 59). Dr., N. K. Bhattasali thinks that Jayatunga of the above notice is a placename and identifies it with the region around the stream Jatinga which traverses the hilly region near Silchar (Ānandabāzār Patrikā. Śāradīya Sankhyā, 1351 B. S., p. 119-121).

and Bad-Kamta, the royal residence of Devakhadga. The position of Samatata thus outlined is in agreement with the position of Davaka with which Samatata is grouped in the Allahabad inscription, for Davaka is identified with Pabokā in the Nowgong district in the valleys of Kapilī and Kolango². It thus stands that throughout the ancient period Samatata's connection with the country to the east of Brahmaputra remained unchanged.³

In the early Gupta period Samataţa was a Pratyanta-rājya, but the Gangetic Delta formed an integral portion of the Gupta Empire, as Gupta Coins coming out from the ruins of Koṭālīpāḍā in the district of Faridpur tend to show⁴. At a later time in the Pāla and Sena periods, portions of lower Bengal such as the Backergunge and Faridpur districts, along with Dacca, came to be known as Vauga having nothing in common with Samataţa. But if in the time of Hiuen Tsang (c. 638 A. D.) the boundaries of Samaţata included a portion of Central Bengal, it was obviously a very temporary territorial settlement resulting from some political conditions.

Samatata was thus roughly equivalent to the Meghnā valley.⁵

- 1 IHQ. XXIII, Sept. 1947, pp. 231ff; Bhūratavarsa, Vaišūkha, 1353, pp. 369-374.
- ² K. L. Barus, Early History of Kamarupa, p. 42. fn.; Bhāratavarṣa, \bar{A} ṣāḍa, 1348 B. S. p. 84, 86-7.
- 3 For other views on Hiuen Tsang's Samatata, see, HAIB, pp. 91, 96-7, 102-103. Dr. B. C. Sen even goes further and seeks to prove that the districts of 24-Parganas, Khulna and Backergange, etc., were incorporated into Samatata. The fact that the land in the Khūdi-visaya was measured according to the standard prevalent in Samatata is not a sufficiently adequate proof by itself to maintain that the Visaya lay within the jurisdiction of Samatata. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury says that the services of the land-measurers from Samatata 'may have been requisitioned' (DUHB. p. 26) by the Sens kings.
- 4 See the Ghugrahati Grant of Samācāradeva (EI. XVIII. 84-86), edited by Dr. N. K. Bhattasali. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury says that Koṭālipāḍā was once a thriving city of civilization and the centre of sea-borne trade and commerce (DUHB. p. 7).. For Koṭālipāḍā fort see HAIB, p. 137 ff
- 5 For other countries mentioned by Hiuen Tsang as lying near about Samatața and their identification see P. Bhattacharji 'To the east of Samatața', IHQ. IV 169-178. N. Das Gupta who writes on the same subject in Indian Antiquary (Dec. 1932) agrees with the conclusions of P. Bhattacharji that Shih-li ch'-a-to-la, Ka-m-o-lung-ka and To-lo-po ti represent Sylhet, Comilla and Hill Tipperah respectively. See also IA. IV. 113 ff. The eastern-most portion of India seems to have been known to Pāṇini. The Sūramasa-janapada of IV. I. 170 possibly represented the Sūrmā valley in the tract of Meghna (IHQ. XXIX. 4, 23).

From some inscriptions found in that area we learn that the Meghnā tract in ancient times had some local and administrative divisions. Thus the Uttara-mandala of the Gunaighar (18 miles north-west of Comilla) Grant of Vainyagupta (507-8 A. D.) may have embraced the countryside round Comilla. The Tipperah Grant of Lokanatha (7th century) again refers to the Suvvunga-visaya. In the Chittagong Plate of Kāntideva (9th century) we find mention of Harikela-mandala which might have stood for a portion of the Chittagong district in the ninth century A. D. Even Samatața is mentioned as a Mandala in the Mehar (Chandpur) Copper-plate of Damodara Deva (1234 A. D.), which also included the Paraṇāyi-viṣaya. From the Mayanāmatī Copper-plate Grant of Raṇavaṇkamalla we know of other territorial units such as Veja-khanḍa and Pattikera of ancient Tipperah.

15. UDRAS

They were a people of the eastern coast of India as already

- 1 IHQ. VI. 40 ff. Dr. B. C. Sen points out that the geography of the Gunaighar Grant refers particularly to the physical features of the Tipperah district (HAIB, pp. 92-95).
- ² EI. XV. 303 ff. Dr. N. K. Bhattasali connects it with Shubong-Gang which traverses the hilly region between Half-long and Silcher (Saradīya Ānanda Bāzār Patrikā, 1351 B. S., pp. 119-121).
- 3 But Dr. R. C. Majumdar prefers to leate Harikala of this inscription in the 'Coastland between Samatata and Orissa' (DUHB, p. 134). The identity of Harikela is a matter of great controversy among scholars. The earliest allusion to the name which occurs in the account of Chinese writers indicate that it was 'the eastern limit of Eastern India'. Prof. D. C. Bhattacharya seeks to locate it in the district of Tipperah (IHQ, XX. 2ff.). The lexicographers of the eleventh and twelfth centuries knew Harikela as the equivalent of Vanga. The geographical indications contained in the allusion to the name in the Rampal Grant of Śrīchandra, support, according to Dr. D. C. Ganguli, the views of the lexicographers (IHQ. XIX. 22). Another class of texts of the 15th and 16th centuries equate Harikela with Sylhet (DUHB. p. 16) In the present state of our knowledge it is not possible to reconcile all the conflicting theories stated above, and determine its ancient appropriate application. For other discussions in the subject see Modern Review, Nov., 1922, pp. 612-14; IHQ. II. 322-323; Bhāratavarṣa, 1332, B. S. Āṣāḍa; pp 42-43; IO. XII. No. 2, Oct. and Decm. 1945.
- 4 IHQ. IX. 289, line 6. For the kingdom of Pattikers see Dr. R. C. Majumdar in DUHB. pp. 257-58.

noticed.¹ In the *Manu-smṛti* the Odras are grouped with a host of Mleccha people. The *Padma Purāṇa* writes that they were Mlecchas,² and in the Jaina $Praj\hbar\bar{a}pan\bar{a}^3$ we have a similar notice regarding them. Hiuen Tsang informs us that the people were uncivilized, tall in stature, and of a yellowish black complexion. Their language also differed from that of Central India.⁴

18. PRĀG-JYOTIŞAS

Pragjyotisa was ruled by Bhagadatta in the time of the Mahabharata. He is frequently mentioned in the Great Epic as the powerful ally of Duryodhana 6 who fought with a great army of the Chinas and Kirātas?. In the early period, the country seems to have been peopled by a hive of Tibeto-Chinese races, but connected history is reached in the dynasty founded by Pralambha (c. 800-825 A. D). His successor Srī Harjara Varmadeva lived in Harüppeśvarapura and issued a royal edict. Harjara's son and successor was Vanamāla who is described as Prāgjyotiṣādhipānvayo, in his Tezpur-plates (Darrang district). It is further stated that the river Laubitya-Sindhu was continually washing the sides of Mt. Kāmakūta inhabited by Kāmeśvara and Mahāgauri. 10 Kāmakūta or Kāmagiri is the same as the Kāmākhyā hills11 famous for its temple, lying not far from Gauhati town. The indications are positive enough that Haruppesvarapura, the royal residence of Harjaravarmadeva, was situated in the neighbourhood of the modern town of Gauhati near the sacred temple of Kāmākhyā. In the Tezpur-plates, mention is made of a land-grant executed by Vanamāla in the country to the west of the Trisrotā (Tista). This indicates that the political frontiers of Pragjyotisa in the 9th century A. D., not only included the Brahmaputra valley, but also

¹ Supra 73ff. 2 Svarga, 3. 53. 3 IA. XX. 375.

⁴ BR, II. p. 204. The AŚVAVADANAS (No. 16) were a half-civilized people of the eastern coast of India and the DANTURAKAS (No. 17) were the people of a Kalinga ciey (Supra p. 78).

⁵ Mbb; il. 51. I4. Hiuen Tsang says that the people of Kamarupa were of small stature and that they had a dark yellow complexion (BR, II, p. 196).

⁶ ii. 34. 9.

The inscription of Khāravela refers to the Cinas and Kirātas (EI. XX, 22, fn. 11.).

[•] Cf. Mlecchādhinātha Śālastambha of the Bargaon Grant of Prāg-Jyotiṣādhipati-Mahārājādhirāja-Śrī-Ratnapāla-Varmadevah.

⁹ DHNI, I, p. 243. 10 Ibid. 244-45. 11 DD. p. 86.

the region lying to the west of the Brahmaputra as far as the Karatyoā which flows to the west of Tista.

In the Bargaon (Darang district) Grant of Prāgjotiṣādhipati Ratnapāla, who was the third king of the Pālas of Prāgjyotiṣa (c.1000 A. D. - 1100 A. D.) and ruled from his impregnable city Śrī-Durjaya, notice is made of a land grant in the Trayodasagrāmaviṣaya in Uttarakula¹. The Nowgong Grant of Prāgjyotiṣādhipānvayo Śrī-Balavarmadeva (c. 975 A. D.) also records the grant of land in the Dijjinnā viṣaya in Dakṣiṇakula.² The Nowgong and Darrang districts, the find-spots of the inscriptions, apparently lay within Prāgjyotiṣa and the location of 'Kula' countries may indicate its extent at that time.

Some Paramāra records of the tenth century A. D. refer to some donees who hailed from N. Bengal. Donee No. 9 came from village Paundarika (which may have derived its name from Paundranagara) in Uttarakula-deśa³, and donee No. 5 from Bogra. These notices refer to some portions of N. Bengal, perhaps the wedge of land formed by the junction of the river Karatoyā or Tista with either the main stream or one of the branches of the old Brahmaputra as the ancient 'Kula' countries, which obviously formed the western outpost of the Prāgjyotiṣa kingdom at the time of Balavarma and Ratnapāla.

But Prāgjyotiṣa was also the name of a city in Kāmarūpa. A passage alluding to this runs thus: Prāgyjotiṣampuramgatvā Kāmarūpāntarasthitam. Kāmarūpa is mentioned after Samataṭa as one of the Eastern Pratyantas in the Allahabad Pillar inscription of Samudragupta. It is also mentioned in the Belava Grant of Bhojavarman and is regarded as an equivalent of the Gauhati district, the land of the goddess Kāmākhyā where flows the river Lauhitya. We learn from the Kālikā Purāṇa that the land of the Kāmākhyā devī extended up to the river Karatoyā. That Karatoyā was the western boundary is also stated in the itinerary of Hiuen Tsang. The

¹ DHN1, I, pp 248-52. 2 lbid- 246-47.

³ E1, XXIII. 103.

⁴ Of. The Nowgong grant of Balavarman, Lord of Pragjyotisa.

⁵ Kālikā Purāņa, Ch. 33. 143. A description of the city occurs in Ch. 39. 91. Also see Ch. 38. 119 for the origin of the name. The Skanda Purāņa has similar references (i. 2. 60. 2).

6 Kālikā Purāņa, 38. 113 ff.

^{7 38. 123.} In the Yogini-tantra the country of Kamarupa is described as lying between the Karatoya and the Dikhu Of. also Kālikā Purāņa, 51. 62 ff.

pilgrim crossed the river Ka-lo-to or Karatoyā while travelling from the borders of Pun-na-fa-tan-na (Puṇḍravardhana) to Ka-mo-lu-p'o (Kāma-rūpa)¹, which was about 10,000 li in circuit or 1667 miles. The estimated size indicates that it comprised the whole of the Brahmaputra valley from the Karatoyā river in the Rangpur district on the west, to the Surma river on the east. Some scholars think that on the north it might have included even Bhutan. The capital town, which was about 30 li in Hiuen Tsang's time, is usually taken to be modern Gauhati or any other place near it, which in all probability represents the site of ancient Prāgjyotiṣapura, the capital of Kāmarūpa as given in some texts.

Prāgjyotiṣa and Kāmarūpa though viable enough in a political and geographical sense seem to have shared the same country: references in the $Raghuvain\acute{s}a^2$ do not really imply a distinction as some writers maintain. The testimony of Hemacandra supporting the contention runs thus: $Prāgjyotis\bar{a}h\ K\bar{a}mar\bar{u}p\bar{a}h^3$

But inscriptional evidence is not in accord with the literary references noticed. In the Kamauli Grant of Vaidyadeva which may be referred to the early part of the 12th century A. D., Kāmarūpa has been mentioned as a Mandala of the Prāgjyotiṣa-bhukti. In the Deopara inscription of Vijayasena (c. 1097-1159) Kāmarūpa again appears as the name probably of Assam as a whole. In a plate of Lakṣmanasena (c. 1185-1206), Assam is again designated as Prāg-jyotiṣa, while in the works of Muhammadan historians it is invariably designated as Kāmrud. The Buddhist chronicle Ārya-maħju-ŝrī-mūlakalpa, describes Kāmarūpa as a country of the east.

¹ YC, II, pp. 184-187; CAGI, pp. 572ff and p. 729.

² Raghu, iv. vs. 81-84. 3 Abhidhāna, p. 381. A similar statement is found in the Vaijayantī (VJN, p. 37. v, 29). In the lexicon of Purusottamadeva (TKS, p. 31) it is written as Prāgjyotiṣam Kāmrūps. The Kathū-S-Sūgara refers to Kāmarūps (I. p. 151.) 4 EI. II. 353, lines 48-49. 5 EI. XXVI. 11, verse 11. 6 Tabaqat-i-Nasiri, trans. by Raverty, vol. I. pp. 560-72.

⁷ AMKLP, p. 275, v. 7; p. 325, v. 8. LAUHITYAS (No. 19) were the people of the Brahmaputra valley. Kṣ̄ĪRODASAMUDRA (No. 20) is a mythical name. PURUṣĀDAS (No. 21) were cannibals. UDAYAGIRI (No. 22) refers to the northern peak of the famous Khaṇḍagiri hills of Bhuvanseswar. BHADRAS (No. 23) were the people of the Central Division (supra pp. 22 ff.), but a line of kings bearing this name seem to have ruled in Eastern Bengal in the seventh century A. D. (IC. II. 795-97; DUHB. pp 85-86).

24. GAUDAKAS

The earliest literary reference to the name occurs in the works of Pāṇini for the grammarian seems to have known Gauḍapura as a city of the east. The mention of Gauḍa along with Vanga and Puṇḍra in the Arthāśastra of Kauṭilya, possibly refers to the same place known to Pāṇini. Gauḍa is not mentioned in the Mahābhāṣya, but the people are frequently mentioned in the Kāmasūtra (3rd Century A. D.) of Vātsyāyana; and Yośodhara in his Commentary on Sūtra No. 33 (Sāmprayogikādhikaranam) explains that Gauḍa was the country of the east. In a territorial sense Gauḍa was the name of a part of Bengal which had its capital at Karṇasuvarṇa in the 7th century A. D. as Harṣa-carita indicates. Dr. D. C. Sircar thinks that the city of Gauḍa, not being the historical capital of the Gauḍa country in an earlier age, was built in its present site in Malda sometime after the seventh century in the age of the Pālas.

Daṇḍin refers to the two styles of Vidarbha and Gauḍa, the latter being known as the Paurastyā or the Eastern style. In the Vikramānka-Kāvya of Bilhaṇa, Gauḍa is grouped with Kāmarūpa. Kalhaṇa pays high encomium to the Gauḍas for their bravery and the indications are positive enough that Gauḍa of Bengal was meant. Buddhist work Ārya-Mañiuśrī-mūlakalpa records: "Bhabitā Gauḍa deśo'smim Gaṇgātīra-samāṣṛtaḥ. All these references along with the bearing 'East', in which both Parāṣara and Varāhamihira agree, must be interpreted as applying to an eastern people consistent with the information derived from the inscription of Iṣānavarman, which definitely establishes the connection of the Gauḍas with South-West Bengal in the middle of the sixth century A. D. The tradition recorded in the Purāṇas that an ancient Ikṣvāku king built the city

¹ VI. 2. 99-100. Dr. D. C. Siroar doubts the identication of Pāṇini's Gaudapura with the city of Gauda in Bengal (IHQ. XXVIII. 124).

AS, p. 90. The Arthasastra is assigned to about the third century A. D. but the non-mention of Samtata may indicate an earlier date for these references.

3 VK8, p. 308, 360, and 373.

⁴ ED. by Cowell and Thomas, p. 187. 5 Sircar, op. cit.

⁶ Kavyadarsa, Ch. I. 40, 42, 43.

⁷ IA. V. 319. 8 IV, 148-149, 324, 335, RT, I, p. 152.

⁹ AMKLP, p. 631, v. 9a. Other references to the people in the work occur in p. 232, v. 11, p. 275, v. 8a. and pp. 631-32.

of Śrāvastī in the 'lauḍa-deśa¹ is not supported by any reliable authority. In Buddhist literature where Śrāvastī is frequently mentioned, its association with Gauḍa is not hinted at. Vātsyāyana knew Gauḍa and Kośala as names of distinct countries. It is, therefore, held that Gauḍa of the Purāṇic passages alluded to may have been the Sanskritised form of the local name Goṇḍa. The theory of Cunningham that ancient Gauḍa was only a portion of Kośala does not appear to be supported by the notices recorded above. Many Gauḍas seem to have existed (Cf. Gonda in C. P.). The five divisions of Gauḍa designated as Pañca-Gauḍa, which occurs frequently in the mediaeval literature of Bengal⁶ had its origin, according to Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury⁷, in the political extent of the Gauḍa empire of Dharmapāla, and so do not stand for the Gauḍas of early literature.

The Haraha inscription (A. D. 554) of Isanavarman records the conflict between the Maukharis and the 'Gaudas living on the sea shore' (Samudrāśraya). The conqueror, it is stated, turned against the Gaudas after routing the Sulikas who may have been living in Orissa. This inscriptional evidence, leaves no doubt that the littoral regions of West Bengal was the home of the Gaudas in the sixth century A. D. when they first stepped into the light of history. The

- 1 Matsya, 12, 30; Linga, 1, 65; Kūrma i . 20 19. The connection of Śrāvastī with the place of that name as mentioned in the Silimpur inscription is discussed by Dr. B C. Sen (HAIB, p. 122).
 - 2 VKS, p. 271, p. 308, 360, and 373.
 - ⁵ PHAI, p. 537; DUHB, p. 12, fa. 7; IHQ. XXVIII. 129.
- 4 Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, vol. I, pp 327-328. For the views of Jackson see JRAS. 1905, pp. 163-4.
 - 5 AR, IX. 82-83, 6 IHQ. XXVIII. 132-33.
 - 7 PHAI, p. 537; DUHB. p. 14; HAIB, pp. 126-27,
- ⁸ El. XIV. 117, vs. 13. Also see the inscription of Suryavarman of the Asvapati family, V. E. 611 (JAHRS. VIII, 148-49)
- The king conquered the Lord of Andhra, vanquished the Sūlikas and caused the Gaudas living on the sea-shore..." etc. The names are set in the geographical order from the south to the north. The records of Sūlikas which have been found in Orissa show that they occupied that tract in the middle of the sixth century A. D. (DHNI, I, p. 438). They may have been known as Sūlkis (Ibid. fn. 2) The other view is that they were the same as Chālukyas (PHAI, p. 509). Rev. H. Heras discusses all the views that are current and writes that the Tamilian name Chola was slowly but naturally converted into Sūlika which occurs in the Haraha inscription (JAHRS, I. 130-31). Dr D, C. Sirear equates Sulkī with Dhenkanal in Orissa (Journal of Oriental Research, Vol. XVIII. Pt. I).

'haughty foes' on seaside shores, as stated in the Aphsad (7th century) inscription, may have the Gaudas in view. In another inscription, the Lord of Gauda is described as lying in the 'watery fort of the sea'. These notices along with the epithet 'Samudrāśraya', applied to the Gaudas of the sixth century A. D., point to the littoral districts of West Bengal² as being their home in the time of Varāhamihira. The separate mention of various other geographical divisions of ancient Bengal in our texts, suggests the inference that Gauda of ancient tradition carried a restricted sense.³

In the next century the Gaudas are found to be in possession of Murshidabad, for Śaśāńka who has been called 'the Lord of Gauda' in the Harga-carita, 'the earliest king to whom that epithet is applied' had his capital at Karnasuvarna, which according to Hiuen Tsang. was the name of both the kingdom and capital of Sasanka.4 It is mentioned as Karnasuvarnaka in the Vappaghosavāta inscription of Jayanāga⁵ and is identified with Kāngāmātī (Rakta-mrttikā, anciently known as Kānsonā), six miles south-west of Berhampur in the Murshidabad district. 6 The kingdom of Karnasuvarna might have comprised portions of Nadia, Burdwan, Birbhum and Murshidabad districts. Sometime after the death of Sasanka (between A. D. 619 and 637) the Gauda king Jayanagas was overthrown by Bhaskaravarman, king of Kāmarūpa, who at the time of the issuing of the Nidhanpur plates was in possession of Karnasuvarna.9 But in the time of Yasovarman of Kanauj, who ruled at least from 731 to 736 A. D., a king possibly of Gauda, was occupying the throne of

¹ El. XXII, 135, vs. 34.

² Another interpretation that is given of the expression is that the Gaudas had a place of refuge in the sea itself, perhaps an island (DUHB. p. 37, fn. 3).

³ Cf. Gauda-Vişaya of the Känheri inscription of Amoghavarsha I (IA. XIII. 134). 4 YC, II, p. 192.

⁵ El. XVIII. 61-64.

⁶ The identification was first proposed by Beverldge (JASB. 1893, pp. 315-328). For other views see IC.V. 349 ff; HAIB, pp. 63-66. See also R. C. Majumdar, Suvarṇadvīpa, I, p. 82 f.

⁷ DHNI, I, p. 274.

t He is placed in the period 550-650 A. D. and there is a general consensus of opinion that he ruled after the death of Śaśāńka and before the conquest of Karnasuvarna by Bhāskaravarman (DUHB, p. 80 and fn. 2).

⁹ EI. XII. 65; XIX. 115.

Magadha, as the Gaudavaho of Vākpatirāja tells us. 1 The Rājataraṅgiṇī records that in the time of Jayāpīḍa (c. 762) the city of Pauṇḍravardhana was subject to the king of Gauḍa. 2 Identification of Pauṇḍravardhana with Mahāsthān in the Bogra district is proved by the Mauryan Brāhmī inscription of Mahāsthān. 3 These notices coming from different sources bear allusions to the gradual extension of the political frontiers of the Gauḍa kingdom, which reached its farthest limits in the time of Dharmapāla and Devapāla.

The Gauda kingdom in the Pala period extended in the west beyond the limits of Bengal, and the title Gaudesvara came to represent imperial power. In contemporary records, the Pala kings are styled as Gaudeśvara⁴, Gaudendra⁵, Gaudādhipa⁶, and Gaudarāja. The Senas who followed the Pālas inherited this proud title and retained it even when they had retired far to the east of Gauda shorn of dignity and territory. The Rajavadi (Bhawal) plate of Gaudeśvara Laksmanasenadova was issed from Dharyya-grāmas, where he shifted his capital 'on the road to further retirement; after he had lost north-western Bengal as a result of the invasion of Ikhtivāruddin Muhammad. Even Kesavasena and Viśvarūpasena assumed the title of Gaudeśvara. The title later on bore a purely conventional import. A Copper-plate grant from Balasore (1483) shows that kings of Orissa also took this title. 9

The geographical location of the Gaudas in early times has been noticed. But Gauda practically became a synonym for North and West Bengal, as mention is made of the inclusion of Varendra and Rādha within it.¹⁰ Thus Gauda included Karnasuvarna¹¹, and

- 1 For the evidence of Gauda-vaho, see DUHB, p. 94.
- 2 IV, 421, RT, I, p. 160. 3 EI. XXI, 85 ff.
- 4 El. I. 126, vs. 23. Cf. The Copper-plate of Vaidyadeva (El. 11. 355, line 13).
 - 5 The Wani Grant of Govinda III (IA. XII, 160, line 39).
 - 6 IA. XIV. 140. 7 DHNI, I, pp. 349-50.
- ⁸ Dr. N. K. Bhattasali who has edited the plate identifies the place with the region round about Rājāvāḍi, a village 9½ miles north-east of Jayadevpur Railway station on the Dacca-Mymensing railway line (JASB. 1942, VIII, pp. 1, 14, 20 and 34).
- 9 IA. I. 355. Cf. reference to Gauda in a Tantra: Gauda lay between Vanga and Bhuvanesa (1HQ. XXVIII. 127).
- 10 Dr. B. C. Sen. points to an evidence of the inclusion of Varendra and Rāḍhā in the Gauda kingdom (HAIB, p. 125).
 - 11 JASB. 1908, p. 274.

literary (Prabodhacandrodaya) and epigraphic evidence refer to the inclusion of Rāḍha within Gauḍa. Rāḍha also known as Lāla³ and Lāḍa,¹ and divlded into two parts,⁵ was roughly equivalent to the country bounded by the Gānges on the north and the Bhāgīrathī on the east. According to a late Buddhist chronicle, the Ārya mañjuśrī-mūlakalpa, Lāḍa janapada extended up to the sea. Ageographical work which is 'professedly a section of the Bhavishya Purāṇa but interspersed with materials which are clearly quite modern', states that 'Gaura' lay to the south of the Padmā, the principal towns of which were Gaureśa, Rāmakeli (the name of a suburb of ancient Gaur to the north of the Ganges), Maula-

- 1 Ed. by Srikrishna Misra and printed by Kavyaprakasa Press, 1874, Act. II, p. 28; IHQ. 1932, pp. 521 ff.
- In two inscriptions of South India, one dated A. D. 11(8, and the other referring to 1261 A. D. Rādhā is included in Gauda (JAHRS. IV. p. 158, L. 7); Rangacharlar, 'Ins. of the Madras Presidency', I. p. 353; IHQ. 1937, p. 162. But Gauda and Rādhā is also separately mentioned in the Maranja-mura charter (JBORS. 1916, II, p. 53, plate II, L. 2). And the Senas who were originally ornaments of the Rādhā country (EI. XIV. 156 ff) atyled themselves as Gaudeśvara only after they had reduced to submission North Bengal. The Digvijaya-prakāśa specifies Rādha and Gauda as two distinct countries (Vasumatī, 1340, Māgh, p. 610).
 - 4 Tirumalai inscription of Rajendra Cola (El. IX. 229-233).
- 5 Āchārānga sūtra one of the oldest books of the Jainas, as already noted, records the two parts of Lūdha (see supra p 159). An inscription of the 9th century A. D. refers to Ottarā Rāḍhā and in the Prabodhacandrodaya the reference is to Dakṣiṇa Rāḍhā. În the Tirumalai inscription we have reference to both as Takkaṇa-lāḍam and Uttira-lāḍam. The river Ajaya was the boundary between the two parts of Rāḍhā (JRAS. 1935, pp. 73 ff.). See also DUHB, pp. 21-22.
- 6 Vallāla-caritam, Biblio. Indic., 1904, pt. II, ch. I; HAIB, p. 45; P. C. Sen, IHQ. viii. 521-24. N. L. De writes that Rāḍha was bounded on the west by Manbhum and Singhbhum (IHQ. IV. 47-56).
 - 7 AMKLP, p. 624. Cf. also 'Lādodreşu' (Ibid. 233).
- 8 IA. XX. 419 The passage in question has been used with considerable doubt as Dr. N. K. Bhattasali who was consulted on the point was of the opinion that it was spurious. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury refers to this statemen twithout any comment (DUHB. p. 13). IHQ. XXVIII.126-7.
- 9 Memoirs of Gaur and Pandua, by Khan Sahib M. A. A. Khan, ed by Stapleton, Calcutta, Bengal Secretariat, MC MXXXI, pp. 88 ff. For Gaur and other ancient places, see M. Chakravarti in JASB, 1909, pp. 214 ff.

paṭṭan (Mollai-Hooghly), Morasudābād, Kanthakākhya (Cutwa) and Śāntipura. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury draws our attention to a notice contained in the Anargharāghava (8th century A.D.), which alludes to Champā located in the north-west of the city of Burdwan as the capital of the Gauḍas. 1 All these raise a strong presumption, that at certain periods in ancient times Gauḍa in a territorial sense represented the ancient Rādha country.

But the provenance of the Pala records leave the impression that some districts of North Bengal were territorially and geographically the same to which the name Gauda was applied in the The Pillar inscription found at Bangad in the Pala period. Dinajpur district records the erection of a temple by a king of Gauda. The Pala king of the Badal pillar inscription is styled Gaudeśvara. The Lord of Gauda, whom Vijayasena claims to have defeated in the Deopära inscription is generally identified with Madanapāla, whose Manahali Grant was found in the Dinajpur district. The city of the Gaudas, Gaudepurottame of Vallala-carita, 2 might have stood on the site of ancient Gaur of the modern Maldah district.3 An inscription of Saka 889 (=967 A. D.) states that one Gadadhara who was a crest jewel of the Gauda country and illuminator of the Varendri was born in the village Tada. The village has been identified with the modern Tara situated at a distance of about twelve miles south-east of Dinajpur. The inscriptional evidence is also supported by the Purāna-sarvasva which states that Varendrī was situated in Gauda.5

Epigraphic evidence makes it manifestly clear that in the Pāla and Sena periods, the two largest and well-known geographical divisions of Bengal were Gauda and Vanga. The distinction between Gauda and Vanga was known as early as the third century A.D., for Vātsyāyana refers to the Gaudas and Vangas⁶, the same dis-

¹ DUHB p. 13.

² Biblio, Ind., op. cit. p. 18, v. 9; HAIB, pp. 118-20. In the Arya. Mañjusri-mulakalpa (AMKLP, p. 645) mention is made of Gaudapuri.

³ Dr. B. C. Sen's contention (HAIB, p. 33 and fn. 6) that the Maladas of the Epic are to be connected with the district of Maldah lacks support. Except the obvious similarity of names there is nothing to suggest the identity of the two. The Maladas were a people of the Central Division as already noted (supra p. 38), although they are mentioned as a people of the east (No. 40).

⁴ EI. XXI. 261-62, vs. 13-14. For Gadadhara, see DUHB, p. 677.

⁵ Aufrecht. Cat., p. 87. 6 VKS, pp. 308-9, Sūtras Nos. 38 and 41.

tinction is also observed in the Gauda vaho. The Brhat-samhitā has reference to the Gaudas, but not to the Vangas, while in the text of the Vā. group we have reference to the Vangas, but not to the Gaudas, as a people of the Eastern Division. In several epigraphs such as the Sonpur Grant of Mahāsivagupta and the Pithāpuram plate of Prithvisena (S. 1108) distinction is made between Gauda and Vanga. In the Baroda Grant (812 A.D.) of Rāṣṭrakūṭa Karka II. Gaudendra and Vangapati are separately mentioned. Gauda and Vanga also occur as two separate names in the long list of countries furnished by the Skanda Purāna.

The earliest literary reference to the ethnic name Vangas, is found in the Aitareya Āranyaka along with the Vagadhas (= Magadhas) and Cerapadas the three tribes who transgressed the Vedic faith. They are clearly mentioned in the Dharma state of Baudhayana as an impure people; and geographically the Vanga country was excluded from Arvavarta in the Dharma literature (4th century B. C). But a Jaina work of considerable antiquity, the Jaina Upanga called the Prajnapana, refers to the people as one of the Eastern Ariyas and even records Tamalitti as their chief city.6 The Mahāvamsa narrates the colonial enterprise of prince Vijaya of Vanga, but it is doubtful if the mention of Buddhist teacher Upasena as Vangantaputta and of another teacher as Vangīśa contains any reference to the well-known people of Bengal. Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar says that Vanga does not figure prominently in connection with the early proselytising activity of the Buddhists. Epic traditions are of great value in that they confirm the antiquity of Vanga, as a seat of political power at some remote date, and show that it was connected in the relations of both

- 1 JBORS. 1916, II, 53, line 3.
- 2 IA. XII. p. 160, line 9.
- 3 ii, 7. 15. 31; ii. 7. 10. 36. In the Kathā-S-Sāgara we find mention of Gauda (KSSR, I, 461, 464-5).
- ⁴ II. 1. 1. Kieth, Ait. Ār. 101, 200. Some scholars equate Vagadhas of the text with the Bägdis of Burdwan (HAIB, p. 930). The Cerapädas are probably the Cheros who are now found in some districts of Bihar and Orissa. For the equation, Vedic cheras—mod. cheras—keralas, see HAIB, p. 8, fn. 2.
 - 5 ABORI. XXIX. 142.
- 6 Supra p. 30, fn. 2. The name Tamalitti which resolves into Damilitti or Damalipti, i. e. the city of the Damala or Tamala, or the Tamila people is considered to be a relic of an ancient Tamil settlement in Bengal (B. C. Majumdar, History of the Bengali language, pp. 38-41).
 - 7 ABORI, XII, 108,

peace and war with Āryāvarta. The legendary story of the five sons of Bali namely, Anga, Vanga, Kalinga, Pundra and Suhma, however, tends to prove the common but doubtful Aryan origin of this belt of eastern states. The people of Vanga fought in the Kuruksetra war², and the Great Epic records that in course of his expedition Bhisma defeated Samudrasena of Vanga. The Vangas and their country were quite well-known in the second century B. C. as they are referred to by Patanjali, the author of $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sya$, by way of his illustration. Kautilya makes similar references to the country.

The geographical location of the Vanga country presents certain difficulties, as both in a political and geographical sense the position of the country changed in different periods. Epic traditions indicate that in very ancient times Anga, Vanga, Paundra. And Suhma were the only important geographical divisions of the country to the east of Magadha, and that, Vanga was the designation of a country lying adjacent to Anga and Paundra. From the Mahābhārata we learn that Jarāsandha of Magadha ruled over Vanga and Paundra. The question of Paundra apart, Anga in the Epic and Buddhist literature is represented as a country contiguous to Vanga and comprehending a portion of the latter. The Sabhāparva of the Mahābhārata

¹ In the Mahabharata (B), we have perhaps a traditional account of the belt of eastern states: Angan Vangan Kalinganisca Magadhan Kasikosalan (vii, 9. 15), But of these, the collocation Anga, Vanga and Kalinga was the traditional order (Mbh., i. 215. 9; iii, 253. 8). Suhma and Pundra are sometimes tacked on and sometimes dropped. The same combination is found in the Kāmasūtra: Vangāngakalingakānām (VKS, p. 309), and in the Bārhaspatya Arthaiastra (ed. by F. W. Thomas, Op. cit. p. 21). In the Vedic Sutra texts, Anga, Vanga and Kalinga are declared as condemned countries. Baudhāyana even recommends an expiatory secrifice after a journey to the Paundras and the Vangas. The $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r\bar{a}nga$ $S\bar{u}tta$ (SBE. XXII. pp 84-85) refers to the savage nature of the people of the Radha-Suhma country. Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar says that this portion was excluded from Aryavarta and did not fall under any perceptible Vedic influence till the middle of the third century A. D. (ABORI. XII. 110-116), and even later in the 4th century. Also see Dr. H. C. Rav Chaudhury, DUHB. pp. 36-7; Dr. R. C. Majumdar, Early History of Bengal, Dacca University, 1924, p. 2; B. C. Law, 7 he Vangas, IC. I. 57 ff. See also HAIB, pp. 9-13, for a detailed study of the complicated ethnology of the group of the tribes of eastern India.

² Mbh, VII. 159. 3; DUHB, pp. 38-39.

³ IV. 1. 4, Kielhorn's edition, II, p, 282.

⁴ A8, p. 82,

even mentions that Anga and Vanga formed one Vigaya or kingdom. 1 The Jaina tradition referred to above proves the inclusion of Tamluk within Va ga. This is in conformity with the earliest Buddhist literary references to the name Vanga in the Milinda-patha2, where Vanga is described as a maritime country frequented by ships of merchandise. All these are indications which make it highly probable, that the earliest application of the term Vanga also related to the littoral regions of West Bengal which, therefore, implies that portions of the Suhma country at some period in ancient times, were conterminous with Vanga. This is a valid presumption and cannot be ruled out altogether. Kālidās's mention of Suhma, and his concurrent and specific statement, which runs thus - Vangānutkhāya tarasānetā jayastambhān Gangāsroto'ntaresu sah—establishes Vanga's connection with the Gangetic Delta, and indicates that in the time of Kalidasa (5th Cent.), Vanga as a geographical entity was different from Suhma and yet was adjacent to it.3

The first epigrapic mention of the Vangas occurs in the Meherauli Pillar inscription of Candra who fought against his eastern enemies the Vangas. 4 We do not know where the struggle between the

- 1 li, 44.9; R. C, Majumdar, Early History of Bengal, op. cit. p. 8.
- 3 SBE, XXXVI. ii, p. 269,
- 3 The order of conquests described in the Raghuvamsa is as follows: after the conquest of the eastern countries Raghu reached the shore of the eastern sea (v. 34) and then received the submission of the king of Suhma (v. 35). Later on the king of Vanga who used his fleet was defeated (v. 36), and he established his supremacy in the scattered islands of the Gangetic stream. Raghu then crossed the river Kapiśā and landed in the Utkala country with his troops (vs. 34-38). So here Vanga is definitely made contiguous to Utkala on the west being separated from it by the river Kapiśā (DUHB. p. 15). It is clear that according to Raghuvamsa, Vanga which included Tāmralipta extended up to the river Kapiśā which flowed to the west of Tamluk (IHQ. VIII. 533).
- 4 CII. III. 141. But the name Vanga is also traced in an earlier inscription in the expression 'Samvamgīyānam' of the Mauryan Brāhmī inscription from Mahasthan edited by Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar (EI. XXI. 85 ff). The reading is open to doubt and the proposal of treating the name as a case analogous to 'Samvajji', i. e. a confederacy of the united Vrjis is not supported by any other evidence. No history is known about the confederated clans of Bengal. The expression perhaps carries no tribal or geographical sense (HAIB, pp. 81-82). Besides it has been shown (supra p. 157, fn. 4) that the reading Pravanga is an error and that no such people existed. See Barua in IHQ. 1934, March, 57 ff; P. C. Sen, IHQ, 1933, p. 722 ff.

Vangas and the military adventurer Candra took place, but it will not be wide of the mark to suppose that the people of this name who were forced into an action in defence of their country against Candra were possibly the people of the same name who are represented as being vanquished by Raghu in the work of Kalidasa; for the famous poet was not, in all probability, far removed in point of age from that of Candra, who is generally assigned to the pre-Gupta or early Gupta period.

But a great change must have come over in the ethnic settlements of the west Bhagirathi tract in the sixth century A. D., for the expression 'Samudrāśraya' of the Haraha inscription (554 A. D.), used in regard to the Gaudas, indirectly connects them with the littoral portions of the Suhma country. This resulted probably in the amalgamation of the Suhmas by a newer power, the Gaudas, who followed the Suhmas in the country to the west of the Bhagirathi. We may assume further, as seems very likely, that the rise of the Gaudas as a strong power in the littoral regions had its repercussions in the position of the Vangas, who being threatened, built up new frontiers and developed new relations with their neighbours. We have no means of establishing the connection between the rise of the Gaudas and the consequent changes it brought about in the habitat of the Vangas: but we have to consider the fact that the evidence of the presence of the Vangas at all in the land west of the Bhagirathi, is perhaps not generally found in the record of the centuries immediately following Varahamihira. Later references bear out that the Vangas and the Gaudas lived in their respective countries, sharply demarcated, both in a geographical and ethnical sense.

The indefinitness of Vanga as a geographical appellation noticeable in early literature disappeared. The entire triangular tract bounded by the Bhāgīrathī, Padma and the Meghna estuary, definitely came to bear the impress of the ethnic name Vanga. Thus in the Brhat-Samhitā a work of the sixth century A. D., mention is made of UpaVanga, which is commonly identified with some portions of the Gangetic Delta.² We have again a

Varahamibira mentions Vanga Upa Vanga in the list of the South-Eastern Division (Nos 3-4). The bearing appears to be a mistake for the East.

² DD p 211; DUHB. 15. Dr B. C. Sen equates Upa Venga with Noa-khali and Chittagong (HAIB, p. 85).

reference to Anuttara Vanga in the Kamauli Copper-plate of Vaidyadeva which was perhaps equivalent to a portion of South Bengal. Other inscriptions of the late mediaeval period establish Vanga's connection with what is called Eastern Bengal. In Keoar, three miles to the south-east of Rampal in the Munshiganja subdivision of the Dacca district, an inscription on the body of an image runs to the effect that the image was consecrated by one Vaiigoka hailing from Varendri². Is is suggested that the name Varigoka has been derived from the name of the country Vanga, but this assumption, based as it is on an isolated reference cannot be taken Other inscriptions such as the Madanapada Grant of Viśvarūpasena³ found in the Faridpur district, and the Edilpur Grant of Keśavasena⁴, distinctly refer to the inclusion of the famous Vikramapura of the Dacca district, within Vanga: Vange-vikramapurabhāgapradesa. It is thus evident that the Dacca district was in the heart of what was known as Vanga in the Sena period5.

Like Vikramapura, Nāvya was another principal sub-division of Vanga in the twelfth century A line in the Sāhitya Pariṣat Copper plate of Viśvarūpa Sena referring to this runs thus: Paundravardhana bhuktantah pāti-Vange nāvye Rāmasiddhi pāṭake etc. Ramasiddhi is still now the name of a village near Chandsir in the northern extremity of the Barisal district. The same Grant further records that the village of Vinayatilaka, to the east of which lay the sea, was included in Nāvya: Tathā Nāvye Vinayatilaka grāme pūrve samudra sīmā etc. The village of Vinayatilaka clearly survives in the modern Bintilak of the Kālkini thānā in the south of the Faridpur district. The lower course of the Padma and the extensive Bils' that lay to the east of the district are perhaps referred to here as Samudra. The indications are positive enough that the name Nāvya of Vanga was āpplied to the Faridpur and Barisal districts.

- 1 EI. II. 349 ff, vo. 11. 2 EI. XVII. 356.
- 3 JASB. 1896, Pt. I, p. 6 ff: Ins. of Bengal, pp. 132 ff.
- 4 JASB. X. p. 98 ff; Ins. of Bengal, pp. 118 ff.
- 5 In the Tabaqat-i-Nasiri of Maulānā Minhājud-Dīn (Trans. by Raverty. pp. 554-59), it is stated that Lakhmanīah after the fall of Nūdīah got away towards Bang and "there the period of his reign shortly came to a termination. His descendants up to this time, are the rulers in the country of Bang".
 - 6 Ins. of Bengal, III, p. 146, line 42.
 - 7 J. C. Ghosh in IHQ. IV. 637 ff.
 - Ins. of Bengal, III, p. 146, line 47.
 - 9 DUHB. p. 16.

But the mention of Piñjokāṣṭi-grāma in Vikramapura bhāga of Vaṅga¹, however, tends to show that Vikramapura division of Vaṅga was even co-extensive with Nāvya. In any case, it is clear that Vaṅga in the twelfth century consisting of Vikramapura and Nāvya, corresponded to the modern Dacca, Faridpur and Barisal district.

A miniature picture label in a Ms. dated 1015 A. D. refers to Candradvipa. We also know from the Ramapal Grant of Sricandra. who is believed to have flourished in the later part of the tenth or beginning of the eleventh century A.D.3 that Candradvipa was under his rule4. Candradvipa is considered identical with the Bakergani district in particular and some portions of the modern districts of Khulna and Faridpur⁵. This was obviously enough, another division of Vanga, and not necessarily altogether disassociated from it as some think it to be. Such instances are not rare, for Vardhamana which appears as a name in our list of this civision (No. 33) was evidently a part of ancient Rādha, and cannot be distinguished from the ancient Radha country in a geographical sense. It would thus appear that Upa Vanga, Anuttara Vanga, Candradvīpa, Vikramapura and Nāvya were so many divisions of the geographical system of Vaiga, and it gives us a fair idea about the extent and application of the name Vanga in the centuries preceding the Senas. This short list, to which others may be added, will not prejudicially affect the view, that Vanga, by the time of the Sena kings, comprehended the entire triangular Delta of the Ganges.

From the account of Rajendra Chola's invasion of Bengal⁶ we know of another name called Vangāla whose king Govindacandra

¹ The village is identified with the modern Piñjāri (in the Koṭālipāḍā Paganā of the Faridpur district) near Madanapāḍā where the plate of Viśvarūpasena has been found. Dr. B. C. Sen writes that Vikramapura-bhāga comprised at least a part of Faridpur (HAIB, p. 89). But the name ending Kāṣṭi cannot be traced in the name Piñjāri, place names ending with Kāṣṭi (-Kāṭi) are very commonly found in the Barlsal district.

² FIB, I, p. 192, No. 17, 3 DUHB, p. 196.

⁴ Inscriptions of Bengal, III, p. 3.

⁵ EI. XII. 141; S. Mitra, "History of Jessore & Khulna" p. 140; JRAS. 1896, p. 130; JASB. 1875, p. 226; DUHB. p. 18 and 195 fn. 1. See also Dt. Gaz, of Bakargunj. The reading Kandradvīpa of the Sähitya Parishat Grant is a mistake for Fandradvīpa (J. C. Ghosh, IHQ. IV. 638). Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury thinks that the reading should be Chandradvīpa (DUHB. p. 18).

⁶ K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, 'The Cholas', p. 247 ff.

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came into conflict with the army of Rajendra Chola I1. The relevant passage runs thus: "where (Vangāla-deśa) the rain water never stopped (and from which) Govindacandra fled"s. Vangala in the inscription of Rajendra Chola, is clearly distinguished from Uttara-Rādhā and Daksina Rādhā, and the indications are that Vangāla-desa That Govindacandra, presumably a refers to Southern Bengal. member of the royal family of the Chandras (who ruled in Eastern and Southern Bengal during the period between 900-1050 A. D.),3 ruled over Dacca and possibly over the Faridpur districts, is proved by two inscriptions dated in the 12th and 23rd year of his reign. One is the Betka Vasudeva image inscription of the 23rd year of Govindacandra found in Vikramapura, and the other is the Kulkudi (Faridpur) Sun-God image inscription of the 12th year of Govindacandra 4. Dr. D. C. Sarkar who has edited the Betkā (Paikpara) inscription is of opinion that it cannot be earlier than the middle of the eleventh century. But this assumption is not wholly in agreement with the conditions of the defeat of king Govindacandra of Vangāla-desa who came into conflict with the army of Rajendra Chola I a little before 1021 A. D. In any case. the inscriptional evidences as interpreted above lead to the conclusion, that in the eleventh century Vangala-desa comprehended at least the Dacca district which from other epigraphic sources we know, was in the centre of the Vanga country. So Vangala was within Vanga, and not altogether a separate geographical entity as is maintained by some6.

¹ EI. IX. 229-233.

Shastri, op. cit. p. 249; IHQ. XIII. 151-2; EI. IX. 233.

^{3 &#}x27;DUHB. p. 196. For a discussion of some relevant points connected with the Chandras see IC. VII. 409 ff.

⁴ Bharatavarsa, Phalgoon, 1348, B. S., pp. 269-70; Jyaistha 1348, B. S. pp. 768 ff. 5 IC. VII. 405 ff.

⁶ Mr. R. C. Banerjee writes that the Vangālas originally settled in the east of the Brahmaputra (Mehārkul Parganā of the Tipperah district), but invaded Vanga (S. E. Bengal) in the tenth and eleventh centuries (IC. II. 755, 766). Dr. R. C. Majumdar identifies Vangāladeša with the district round Chittagong which he thinks was the original seat of the Pālas and the Candras (IHQ. XVI. 200, For criticism of his views see D. C. Sircar, IC. VII. 408 ff). Marco Polo's account of the Bangala (— Vangāla?) country which points to Pegu and to which attention has been drawn by one writer (P. C. Paul, History of Bengal, I, pp. V-VI 'Introduction) also does not satisfy the geographical conditions of Vangāla-deša as referred to in the Tirumuli inscription.

Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhuri derives the name Vangāla as Vanga+āl (from āli, 'dike') and identifies it with the part of old Vanga (Bakarganj and Khulna) particularly the low-lying flats of the Gangetic Delta intercepted by khāls and creeks2. He also draws our attention to the "Bengala" of Gastaldi (1561 A.D.) which yielded to the Anglicised word Bengal. In an etymological and geographical sense, the word Vangala might have its origin in the physical features of the riverine section of lower Bengal, but this is no proof to maintain that Vangāla represented a separate geographical area quite distinguished from Vanga³. The separate mention of the two4 does not indicate that Vanga and Vangala were locally distinct, just as the separate mention of Rādhā and Gauda⁵ is not a proof that geographically Rādhā and Gauda had always a distinct line of demarcation; and indeed, the Radha country was the cradle land of the Gaudas. For the present, therefore, we may regard that the Vangalas, if at all they were different from the Vangas, cannot be dissociated from the Vanga country?. Indeed, anything we thus

- ¹ DUHB. pp. 18-19; see also 'Studies in Indian Antiquities', pp. 187-88; Mānasī-O-Marmavāṇī, 1335-6 B. S., pp. 566 ff.
- 2 For other views on the etymology of the name see N. Chaudhury in Modern Review, September, 1936. Dr. B. C. Sen points out that the expression 'Vangali' and 'Vangala' were familiar in early mediaeval times (HAIB, p. 1-2, 86).
- 3 Dr. D. C. Ganguly has utilised all the Sanskrit, Chinese, Moslem and European sources of 'Vangala-deśa' to show that in mediaeval times throughout the eleventh, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, Vangala was commonly used to denote the Dacca district which formed a part of ancient Vanga. Later application of the name extended over the whole country from Lakhnauti or Gaur to Chittagong (IHQ. XIX. 297-317). For the city of Bengala, see A. Cortesão, in JASB. XI, 1945, No. I, pp. 10-14.
- 4 It is suggested that the reference to Vanga and Vangala in the Ablur inscription offers no valid ground to think that the two were distinct and separate names (HAIB, p. 86; P. Paul, IHQ, XII, 77-8, fn. 61). See also Dr. D. C. Ganguly who criticises all such references to the separate mention of Vanga and Vangala in IHQ, XIX. 297, fo. 1.

 5 See supra p. 177 fn. 2.
- 6 Prof. Aiyangar's view that Vangāla was a general name of Bengal and not a part of it (JRAS, 1937, p. 82) is untenable as the different parts of Bengal are specifically mentioned by separate names. It is, however, probable that Vangāla was equivalent to the Vanga division of ancient Bengal, and as such they were treated as synonymous in the later period. In the Lāmā Tāranātha's account (IA. IV. 361 ff; IHQ, XVI. 219 ff) Bhhagala is distinguished from Rāḍhā and Varendra which presumbly indicates that Bhangala as a geographical division represented the tract bounded by the Padmā and the Bhāgīrathī, that

decide upon regarding the separate identity of the two would be merely conjectural. It appears that in the late mediaeval period Vanga was being replaced by Vangala (Bengal) in popular use, the former being the early name and the literary name as well, like that of Lanka in relation to Simhala (=Ceylon)¹.

We thus see that towards the end of the Sena period, Gauda (Rādhā and Varendra), Vanga and Samatata were the broad divisions of Bengal. But the geographical connotation of Vanga afterwards expanded so as to include the trans-Meghna tract, because later writers make Vanga co-extensive with the whole region to the east of the Brahmaputra? in addition to the Gangetic Delta. Vanga thus remained, throughout the ancient period, a geographical name with varying significations during different epochs. The country. which at one time included Tamralipta and abutted on Anga, later on represented the modern districts of the Dacca Division. In course of time Vanga's geographical connection with East Bengal became closer, and gradually the name came to cover not only the portions of Lower and Southern Bengal, but also the whole level-land (Samatata) to the east of the Jamuna³. (the name of the southerly course of the Brahmaputra). But old traditions of its associations with places adjoining Rādhā perhaps had its weight in the application

is, the country which figures as Vanga in indigenous accountss. For a detailed study of Taranatha's account see Dr. R. C. Majumdar in DUHB, pp. 182 ff.

- 1 S. B. Chaudhury in IHQ. XXVII. (June 1951) 119-Lanks.
- ² Cf. Vango Lohityāt pūrveņa, of Yaśodhara on Vats. Sūtra (vi, 5. 25, p 294), ed. by Damodara Gosvamin (for a criticism of the geographica! knowledge of Yaśodhara see IC. II. 755 ff). Dr, B. C. Sen draws our attention to a statement of Raghunandan (quoted by S. Ray in his Suvarṇa-grāmer Itihāsa) which indicates that Vanga in the 16th century was co-extensive with the Brahmaputra valley (HAIB p. 85, fn. 2). Cf. also AMKLP, p. 325, v. 9a: Lauhityām tu tate ramye Vangadesegu sarvatah. Also IHQ. XXVIII. 127.
- sovereign styled both Vangapati and Gaudesvara was fast making them interchangeable terms" (DUHB. p 14). But the evidence of Vanga being used as a synonym for Gauda in the late mediaeval period is very rare. Later writers have maintained this distinction too clearly to be overlooked. In a Buddhist chronicle the two are separately mentioned (AMKLP, p. 232, v. 11 and 13). The same distinction is also observed in the Saktisangama-tantra (quoted in the Sabdakalpadruma, Art. Gauda) Early Muslim writers usually noted two broad divisions of Bengal, namely, Vanga and Gauda and the prevince was sometimes called Gaur-Bangāl.

of the name in its widest and modern sense, including the regions lying to the west of the Bhagirathi, thus linking up the western portion of Bengal with its eastern hinterland under the label of one name.

In the records of the Sena period, Vanga is again mentioned as a part of Pauṇḍravardhana-bhukti which as an administrative unit was the largest of the Bhuktis to which the province of Bengal was divided in the Pāla and Sena times³; being roughly equivalent to the modern Rajshahi, Presidency and Dacca Divisions, and perhaps included even a portion of the Chittagong division³. It comprised Koṭīvarṣa-viṣaya⁴ and Khāḍī-viṣaya⁵; two countries Varendra⁶ and Vanga⁷; and the following Maṇḍalas: Nānya-maṇḍala^a Adhaḥpattana-maṇḍala^a. Vyāghrataṭī-maṇḍala^a and Samataṭa-

- ¹ For the various divisions of Bengal of early times see AR. XV.pp. 145-46; HAIB, p. 100, fn. 3.
- 2 Inscriptions of Bengal, p. 3—The Rampal grant of Śrīcandra (EI. XII, 136-42).
 - 3 JRAS. 1935, pp. 73 ff; DUHB, p. 24.
- 4 EI. XIV. 324-33. As a Viṣaya of the Bhukti in question it is also mentioned in the Amgachi grant of Vigrahapaladeva (EI. XV. 295-301), and in the Manchali grant of Madanapala (Gauda-lekhamala. pp. 147-58). The Viṣaya consisted of the following Mandalas:— Gokalikā, Brahmanī-grāma, and Halāvarta. The head-quarters of the Viṣaya was located at Diw-kot i. e. Devakota (DUHB. p. 25). Also see HAIB, p. 106-7.
- 5 EI. XV. 278-86. The Vişaya was equivalent to the area round the Khāḍī-perganā of the Diemond Harbour (DUHB. p. 25), Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury adds some other names in the list of the Vişayas of the Puṇḍra-vardhana-Bhukti. They are— Sthālīkkaṭa, Kuddālakhāta, Khediravallī, Ikkaḍāsī and Satata-Padmāvāṭī (Ibid. 24-25).
- 6 Tarpaṇadīghi Grant of Lakṣmaṇasena (Ins. of Bengal, pp. 99-105). The reading is Varedya which is perhaps a mistake for Varendra. In the Madhai nagar Grant of the same monarch (Ibid. (106-115) Varendrā is included in Pundravardhana-bāukti Cf. Silmpur inscription (EI. XIII. 283 ff).
- 7 Paundravardhana-Bhuktyantah pati-Vange (Inc. of Bengal, pp. 118-131, 132-134 and 144-45).
 - 8 Rampel Grant of Sricandra (EI. XII. 136-42).
 - 9 Belava Copper-plate of Bhojavarman (Ibid. 37-43).
- 1 Khalimpur Grant of Dharmapāla (Gaudalekhamālā, pp. 9 ff). Usually Mandala is a sub-division of a Vişaya but in the above grant Mahantāprakāšaviṣaya is treated as a Sub-division of the Mandala in question. In the Anulia Grant of Lakṣmaṇasena (Ins. of Bengal, pp. 81-91) Vyāghrataṭī is included in the Pauṇḍra Bhukti, but there it is not stated whether Vyāghrataṭī was a Maṇḍala or a Viṣaya (See also DUHB, p. 23-24). For Vyāghrataṭī and Vāgaḍi see HAIB, pp. 97-101,

mandala¹. From the political and administrative point of view the Bhukti thus stood for a wide tract of country far in excess of the geographical limits of Paundravardhana. In some mediaeval manuscripts, the name Paundra-desa is again employed as the designation of practically the whole of Eastern India which geographically speaking carries no meaning. Thus it is written² that Pundra consisted of Gaur, Varendra, Nivritti, Sumbha, Nārikhanda (mistake for Jhārikhanda, Santal Parganas), Varāhabhami (Birbhum), Varddhamāna³ and Vindhya-Pārsva. A similar account of the country occurs in the lexicon of Purusottamadeva: Madhyadesotha-Pundrāhsyur varendrā-Gauda-Nīvrti.⁴

The Paundras appear as a people of the Eastern Division (No, 25), In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,⁵, they are grouped with the Pulindas as dasyus who lived beyond the pale of Aryan culture. The Epic and Purānic traditions combined the Pundras with the people of the

- 1 Bharatavarsa, Asada, 1348, B.S., p. 87 fn. DUHB, p. 29.
- 2 IA. XX. 419. In the 'Defivali-Vivrti' (Des. Cat. of Sans. Ms. Govt. collection, on History and Geography, p. 63), the same description occurs. Also see JASB. 1897. Pt. 1. pp. 85-112.
- 3 Of Vardhamana it is said that the country was highly populous and that the people were pious and diligent. The chief cities were Hatake, Vilwapattau and Samantapattan (IA. XX. 421). Vardhamana was a name of considerable antiquity (P. C. Sen, IHQ, VIII, 531-32), and is mentioned in the list of this Division (No. 33). In the Pala and Sens periods it figured as the name of a famous Bhukti, but the Mallasarul plate (6th century) of Vijayasena (EI. XXIII. 157) which refers to the Vakkattaka-vîthî (Cf. Svalpadakşina-vîthî; the former was situated along the northern bank of the Damedar river and the latter lay along the Bhagirathi in the north-east corner of the Burdwan division, Ibid. 158-159) of the Vardhamana-bhukti, suggests that Vardhamana existed as an administrative division long before the time of the Palas. The Irda plate (10th century) of the Kamboja king Nayapāladeva refers to the inclusion of Dandabhukti-mandala in the Vardhamana-bhukti (EI. XXII. 155, lines 20-21), and the Nathati Grant of Ballalasena (Ins. of Beng. pp. 67-80) records the inclusion of Uttara Radha mandala within Vardhamana-bhukti. Danda-bhukti is perhaps the same as Tanda-butti of the Tirumalai inscription (for Danda-bhukti and Danda-butti see HAIB, p. 73, and 43-44) mentioned between Kośalai-nādu and Takkanalādam, i. e. Daksina Rādhā. So Uttara Rādhā and Danda Bhukti-mandala of the Vardhamana-bhukti indicate that by the twelfth century the Vardhamana-bhukti comprehended the entire region to the west of the Bhagirathi (see also DUHB, pp. 26-28). The name Vardhamana occurs in the Kathā-S-Sāgara (I. p. 194, 207). Various cities of this name seem to have existed (HAIB, p. 60 fn. 4).

⁴ TKS, p. 31. 5 vii, 18; Śānkh-Śr-Sūtra, xv. 26.

east. In the Mahābhārata, the name occurs in various forms such as Pauṇḍraka, Pauṇḍraka, Pauṇḍraka, Pauṇḍra and Puṇḍra, but a close scrutiny of all such references indicates that they were only variants or equivalents of the same name and that no distinction was made¹. Baudhāyana states that Puṇḍra, Vaṅga and Kalinga were impure countries². This allusion suggests the inference, that these three names were linked together as people closely allied on racial grounds, as well as by contiguity of geographical position. The conjecture receives support from a Purāṇic tradition which groups Puṇḍra along with Aṅga, Vaṅga, Kalinga and Suhma, the name of the five sons of Bali, each of whom established a kingdom after his own name. Patañjali in his Mahābhāṣya (2nd century B. C.) makes a similar reference to the ethnic association of the Puṇḍras⁵.

The geographical indications we get from some passages in the epic tend to show that the Pundras' of the old texts cannot always

According to some scholars 'Pundra' and 'Paundra' implied a distinction, the former denoting North Bengal and the latter a country in the south (CAGI, p. 724; S. Levi, Pre-Aryan etc., by P. Bagchi, p. 86; JASB. 1897, p. 101).

^{2 1. 2. 14. .}

³ IV. 2. 52, Kielhorn's edn, vel. II, p. 282.

⁴ Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar informs us that $Pomdavaddhaniy\bar{a}$ of the Jaina Kalpasütra refers to Pundravardhana, the capital of the Pundras who lived in the northern part of Bengal as early as the 6th century B. C. Pundra (N. Bengal), like Suhma was the centre of religious activity of the Jainas (ABORI. XII. 104-107). The earliest epigraphic reference to the city Pundravardhana of North Bengal occurs in the Mauryan Brahmi inscription (c. 2nd. cent. B. C.) found in Mahästhäns, 7 miles North of Bogra (El. XXI. 85f). Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury draws our attention to Puñavadhana of Sañohl Stupa inscription (DUHB, p, 29). Similarly the city of Pundravardhana of Divyavadana (JRAS., 1904, p.83 ff. Of. SBE, XXII, 288), and the city of Paundravardhana and Paundra-desa of the Kathā-S-Sāgara (KSSR, I, p. 187, 141, 196) refer to Northern Bengal and its ancient city. Paundravardhana is mentioned in the accounts of Hiuen Tsang as Pun-na-fa-tan-na. In a Buddhist chronicle the Ārya-mañjuśrī-mūla kalpa (p. 634, v. 11) the same place is referred to, as also in the Rajatarangimi (IV. 421). The Bhukti of Pundravardhana of the Gupta times was roughly equivalent to the whole of North Bengal; in the Pala and Sena periods the Bhukti of this name comprehended a wider area almost equivalent to the whole of Bengal. But a place of the name of Paundra in which there was a city not far from the sea, as mentioned in the Kathā-S-Sāgara (KSSR, II. p. 285), perhaps does not stand for the famous country of this name of North Bengal.

be connected with Puṇḍra or Puṇḍravardhana-bhukti of N. Bengal¹. In the Arthaśāstra mention is made of the product called Pauṇḍrikā along with those called Māgadhikā². The Agni Purāna refers to a Pauṇḍra country of the South-East³. The Buddhist chronicle the Ārya mañjuśrī-mūlakalpa combines the Puṇḍras and Oḍras in a single appellation: Pauṇḍrodrāḥ⁴.

The Pundras, linked as they are with these people, cannot be located in North Bengal. From the context it is clear that they lived somewhere to the west or south-east of Vanga as neighbours of the Magadhas and also of the Odras or any other such people. Pargiter says "that the Pundras had the Kāśis on their north, the Angas, Vangas and Suhmas on their north-east and east and the Odras on their south-east; hence their territory corresponded to the modern Chota-Nagpur with the exception of its southern portions." The validity of the hypothesis is proved by the data recorded above. Dr. B, C. Sen writes: "From their home in Chota-Nagpur they moved in the direction of the north-east to North Bengal."

29. AMBAŞTHAS

The context suggests that they were living near the Maikala range and in many texts they are combined with the Mekalas in a single appellation. People of this name existed as early as the time of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. The Gautama Dharma sūtra refers to their mixed origin, and according to Purāṇic tradition they were the

: Some of the passages of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ containing the name in its many forms run thus;—

"Savangāngān sa Pauņdrodrān" (iii. 51. 22). "Angā Vangākoa Puņdrākoa Śāṇavatyā gayāstathā" (ii. 52. 16); "Vangāḥ Kalingā Magadhā stāmraliptāḥ sapuņdrakāḥ" (ii. 52. 18); "Utkalā Mekalāḥ Pauņdrāḥ Kalingāndhrākoa (vii. 4. 8).

See also i. 113. 29; ii, 34. 11; ii. 4. 29. Cf. Viņņu Purāņa, iv. 28. 18 and HV, III. 46. 56.

The Ramsayna has a similar reference to the position of the Pundrae! Māgadhāmsca mahāgrāmān Pundrāmstavangāmstathaivaca" (iv. 40.23); "Tathaivāndhrāmsca Pundrāmsca colān" (iv. 41.12).

- 2 AS, p. 82. Cf. Mbh (B)., vii. 9. 15; Karūgāmsca Paundrāmsca.
- 3 1HQ, IX, 475. 4 AMKLP, p. 275, v. 7. 5 MP, p. 829.
- 6 HAIB, pp. 130-131; see also JAHRS. X. 109. For PAUŅŪRAS (No. 25) see above; UTKALAS (No. 26) Supra pp. 75-76; KĀŚIS (No. 27) Supra pp. 60 ff; MEKALAS (No. 28) Supra pp. 75-76.
 - 7 viii. 21-23; Ved. Ind., I. 59-60; Cf. Papini, IV. 1. 171.
 - iv. 16,

same as the Ānava kṣatriyas. From a Jātaka story we learn that they were farmers and Manu writes that the people practised the art of healing and followed trade and husbandry, Some scholars think that they were at first Brahmans but became degraded later on.

The Greek writers refer to a people called Abastoni who settledon the lower Akesines.⁴ They are perhaps the same as the Ambaṣṭhas of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa and the Ambaṣṭhas of the Mahābhārata in which texts they appear as a Punjab tribe. In the Bārhaspatya Arthaśāstra, the name is mentioned between Kaśmīra and Saindhava,⁵ the latter representing the Salt Range of the Punjab.⁶

35. MUDGARAS

The name is to be connected with the famous Mudgagiri which was the victorious camp of the Pāla king Devapāladeva from where he issued the Nalanda Copper-plate Grant: Śrī-Mudgagiri-samāvāsita-Śrīmajjaya-Skandhāvāra. The king's Mungir Grant was also issued from the same place. Mudgagiri is considered identical with the modern Mungir on the Ganges in Behar. A Pratihāra inscription states that at Mudgagiri a battle took place between the Gaudas and the Pratihāra prince Kakka. In the Mahābhārata mention is made of Modāgiri kingdom of the east, and in all these the locality indicated is Mungir. Yādavaprakāśa indentifics Mudgaraka with Kuja,9

36. ANTARGIRYAS

This and the name following the Vahirgiryas (No. 37) are conjoined together and placed in proximity to the Abgas in a

- 1 AIHT, p. 109. Cf. Mbh., vi. 20. 10; Ye camvaethah Keatriya.
- 2 No. 495, Cj. IV. p. 229.
- 4 MI, p. 252 and 155; MM, p. 153; MT, p. 160.
- 5 Of. Kāśmīrahūnāmbaşthasindhavaļ (ed. by F. W. Thomas, op. oit. Intro., p. 8 and 21, Sūtra No. 103).
- 6 For the Ambaşthas in Southern India, See Dr. (D. C. Sirear in Prabasi, Āsāḍa, 1351 B. S. pp. 206-209. The EKAPADAS (No. 30) were a fabulous people. For TĀMRALIPTIKAS (No. 31) see Supra p. 160; KOŚALAKAS (No. 32) Supra pp. 61 ff., VARDHAMĀNA (No. 33) Supra p. 189 fn. 3; and for the ANDHRAS (No. 34) see the author's article on the 'Andhras' in JAHRS. XVIII (Pts. 1, 2, 3 & 4, July 1947 to April 1928), pp. 111-114.
 - 7 EI. XVII. 310 ff.
- * EI. XVIII. 805-6, line 27.

9 Ibid, 98. vs. 24.

passage of the Mahābhārata. In the texts under review they appear exactly in the same bearing which may offer a clue to their location in the Rajmahal hills which lay striking along the southeastern border of the Anga country, The two names are mentioned here in obvious contra-distinction: the Antargiryas may be indentified with the people living in the interior of the Rajmahal hills. and the Vahirgirvas with those living on the outskirts—perhaps some aboriginals of the Santal Parganas and Hazaribagh. But in another passage of the Mahābhārata?, Antargiri and Vahirgiri are placed in the northern region to the north of Pragjyotisa in which case the locality indicated is northern Assam. Dr. B, C, Law says that these countries comprised the lower slopes of the Himalayas and the Nepal Tarai. Dr. Agrawala equates Antargiri with the Mahāhimavant of the Pāli texts as representing the central and the heart of the Himalayan system including the highest peaks. such as Gaurišankar, Nundādevī, Kedāranātha etc., and Upagiri with the sub-Himalayan region of low-lying peaks.4

41. MĀLAVĀRTTIKAS

The name is a corruption of Malla-parvatikas or dwellers of Malla-parvata which is identified with the Parasnath hills of Chota-Nagpur. The hill was obviously connected with the Mallas, the famous non-monarchical people of the Buddhist literature, who occupied a small tract of country roughly corresponding to the modern Gorakhpur district, having the Kośalas to their west. The Great Epic refers to Daksina Mallas, which may stand for the Mallas of Parasnath hills. The word 'Malla-porasyz' of the Nālandā inscription's is an incorrect derivative of Mallapura, that is, the city of the Mallas.

42. BRAHMOTTARAS

In the Matsya Purāna, Brahmottara is mentioned along with Vanga and Tāmralipta as one of the countries through which the river Ganges flowed. The name occurs in the $K\bar{a}vyam\bar{u}m\bar{a}\dot{m}s\bar{a}$ in the list of eastern countries as noted in the chart. A Brahma

¹ vl. 9. 49-50. 2 ii. 27. 2.3.

³ TAI. p. 285. 4. IHQ. XXIX, 5. For the VAHIRGIRYAS (No. 37), ANGAS (No. 38), and VANGAS (No. 39) see above. For MALADAS (No. 40) see supra p. 38-

⁵ ii. 30, 12, 6 El. XXV, 335, 7 ch. 121, 50-1.

country is known to us from other sources besides the work of Rājaśekhara. Alberuni also gives notice of a country called Brahmottara. According to another view, Brahma was really the name of a Janapada or deśa in Rāḍhā and that the Suhmas and Brahmas formed an ethnic group. A more definite evidence is obtained in the Ain-i-Akbari where Barmhottara is mentioned as one of the mahals of Satgaon in western Bengal. The Brahmottaras presu-mably lived in Satgaon in the valley of the Bhāgīrathī, but Brahma of Pavanadūta is regarded as a variant of Suhma.

44. JÑEYAMARTHAKAS

This seems to be a corruption of the Jñātṛkas, the clan of Mahāvīra, the Jina. The Jñātṛkas along with the Licchavis and the Videhas formed one of the constituents of the confederate clans (aṭṭhakula) of the Vajjis. Just on the suburbs of Vesālī⁶ there was Kuṇḍagrāma which was the seat of the warrior-clan called the Jñātṛkas⁷.

46. GOMANTAS

The identity of the people is uncertain. In the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ we read of a mountain called Goratha from which a view could be obtained of the capital city of Magadha. It was evidently one of the hills which lay near Girivraja. The mountain is described as abounding in cows: Gomantam subha drumam. The identification of Goratha hill with the Barbar hill was suggested by Jackson. The Goratha hill is now called the $B\bar{a}th\bar{a}ni$ - $k\bar{a}$ - $P\bar{a}h\bar{a}d$, five or six miles to the west of Rajgir.

- 1 JASB. 1873, p. 224. 2 AI. I. 262
- 3 IHQ. VIII, 524-27. 4 AIA. II. p. 141.
- 5 DUHB, p. 33. The next name PRAVIJAYAS (No. 43) may refer to the people of Jyntea in Assam (DD, pp. 159-160), but this is not supported by any convincing evidence.
- 6 This is perhaps mentioned in the Rāmāyaṇa as Višālā (i. 4.5 & 10). A city called Višālā is also referred to in the Kathā. S. Sāgara (KSSR, II. p. 342. 412) in which fortune and learning dwelt. In the late Buddhist chronicle the Ārya-mañjuśrī-mūla-kalpz, we have reference to Vaišāli (AMKLP. p. 88. v. 10).
- ⁷ For other notices about them see TAI, p. 243. For the MALLAS (No. 45) see above.
 - JBORS. I, p. 159 f.
- ⁹ DD, p. 67. The BHARGAVAS (No. 47) may refer to the people of western Assam, the country of the Bhars (DD, p. 32). For the MADRAS (No. 48) see supra p.115 ff.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUDING REMARKS

All the ethnic settlements and country names have now been considered and the resulting geographical setting has been marked out in the preceding pages. Here an attempt may be made, to add thereto, all other particulars to be gathered from tradition, and to sketch in outline the course of geography which all that information suggest. This is offered here. It may be necessary in this connection to repeat a good deal of what has been narrated, and so this critical sketch should be read with the geographical exposition made in earlier chapters.

Definitely later than the Vedic and Brahmanical tradition is the geographical tradition recorded in the Puranas. The geographical area recognised in the Puranas is admittedly large, larger than any such area known to, and described in, any other ancient Sanskrit text. In the period of the Vedas the centre of civilization was tending to be localised in what is called Brahmavarta, but in the age that followed, localisation of civilization in countries definitely more eastern, is noticeable. In the time represented by the Puranas geographical knowledge further extended, and the remotest and the most obscure portions of this vast country came within the pale of knowledge and civilisation. The different peoples and races of India and their settlements point to many centres of civilisation, which sprang up in the distant and retarded regions of the country. The distribution of tribes over all these regions again, unmistakably throw much light on many features of Indian geography not known from any other text. Altogether, ethnic settlements as recorded in the Puranas and astronomical works, mark a definite advance in the geographical knowledge of India and its outlying frontiers, and throw much light on the subject of many human groups and their geographical setting beyond India.

The remotest peoples of eastern and southern India, and the late invaders of the north-west alike claimed a place in the ethnographical lists. Farthest north, we have perhaps a reference to the people of Khasgarh and Chinese Turkistan, and farthest north-west, to the people of Samarkand and Bokhara, and on the west to the people of Persia. On the south, southwest and south-east, Ceylon, Maldive and Nicober Islands

respectively are clearly noticed. This at any rate comprises a distinctly wider horizon, and within these limits again, traditions show a very thorough and intensive acquaintance with minor geographical details. Thus mention is made of many towns and definite localities such as Takṣaśilā, Ujjihāna, Puṣkalāvatī, Māthuraka, Sāketa, Tāmralipta, Danturaka, Chandrapura, Bharukaccha, Ruddhakaṭaka and Sairindha. We also read of Kollagiri, Marucipattana, Baladevapattana in the list of the Southern Division. Definite knowledge of these localities must have been current, and so these are some clear signs both of more developed city life and of more settled habits.

Some very noteworthy features are, however, manifest from a scrutiny of the distribution of these tribes and peoples. It seems that the geographical knowledge of the far north and north-west was more extensive and elaborate than such knowledge of the Punjab, for as already noted, the number of races and peoples who were found to have settled in the basins of Kabul, Helmand and Oxus was pretty large. The natives of those regions with the exception of the Gandhāras and Bālhīkas were mostly new, and were not known to any ancient tradition, That shows how with the consolidation of political forces, Kabul and the Oxus valley to the west of the Indus—being the central link between Asia Minor and India—were increasingly growing in political importance, and consequently became the seat of many new human groups not known to the geography of the earlier period.

But the Punjab definitely recedes in importance at the hands of the compilers; and all those tribes—not many in number—who on examination are found to have inhabited the Punjab, turn out mostly to be new names, who either replaced the old ones or carved out new habitats under the impact of superior political forces. Even Pañcanada a later name coined for the Punjab occurs in the list. Except in very few cases such as the Gandhāras, Trigartas, Madras, Kaikeyas, Śivis and Pauravas we miss all traces of old peoples known to Vedic tradition, in a list of ninety-one tribal and country names (Northern Division) of the Punjab and the neighbouring regions. This fact is, however, very striking: it is this, that there is no adequate evidence in the geographical texts under review to

¹ This observation is made on the basis of a work on the Geography of ancient ethnic settlements on Southern India completed by the author on similar lines.

prove that the Punjab was the home of many ruling races; tradition has not preserved the memory of the existence of many ancient peoples, of Vedic antiquity there. And with the exception of the Sivis, Madras and Kaikeyas and some others already mentioned, among all those tribes who had settled in the Indus basin in the time represented by the Puranas and astronomical works, there are obviously not many who were known to the Vedic texts. observation also holds good with regard to the ethnic establishments of the Iran plateau. With the exception of one or two, the geographical lists of the north and north-west do not furnish any This when contrasted with the ancient name of that region. position of the Mid-land which was the home of many peoples of sacred memories having Vedic connections, favours the contention of Pargiter based on his study of Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, that "Indian tradition knows nothing of any Aila or Aryan invasion of India from Afghanistan nor of any gradual advance from thence eastwards".1 The bearing of the ethnographical tradition on the North-West Frontier and the Punjab (cf. the Vähikas who were held in disrepute) also would not lend support to the theory of any invasion from that quarter.

Ethnic settlements in the country to the south of the Punjab i. e. Rajputana and Malwa seem to have taken place at a later age, although, the area as a whole probably did not lie outside all early geographical traditions. Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury suggests that the desert of Rajputana may have been known to the Rgvedic writers as Dhanvan². And in the period of the Yajus, Atharva Samhitas, and the earlier Brahmanas we hear of tribes like the Kuntis and the Vitahavyas settling there3. The more well-known peoples of that region were the Salvas and the Matsyas, the latter being mentioned The Matsya king Dhvasan Dvaitavana even in the Rgveda. mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaņa may have given his name to the lake and forest called Dvaitavana, which according to the Epic writers were situated in or near about the Matsya country. But the Sivi janapada of Madhyamika may not have emerged into existence earlier than the second century B. C., and indeed most of the ethnic groups of the Central Division who after due scrutiny have been assigned to the Rajputana-Malwa region have hardly any

¹ AIHT, p. 298.

² Dr. H. C. Ray Chaudhury in Cal. Rev., Oct . 1926, p 127.

³ Ibid.

ancient tradition dating back to the period of the Vedas and the Brāhmanas. With the exception of the Salvas and the Matsyas, all others, namely, the Arimedhas, Marus, Kukuras, Avantis and Vrkas of the Central Division, and the Ksudraminas, Agnidhras and Malavas etc. of the Northern Division (but belonging to the Rajputana-Malwa region). have hardly any ancient feature, and are distinctly later in origin. Though later tribes such as the Prārjunas, Sanakānīkas, Kākas and Kharaparikas who appear in the Allahabad inscription of Samudragupta are not mentioned in the texts under review, yet geographical traditions in general of that area as reflected through the distribution of tribes, appear to have taken shape in the post Brahmana age. Some of the tribes might have been the forerunners of the Rajputs who later on played a great part in the mediaeval history of India. But on the whole, ethnographical geography of this section of India, though not quite old, was complete in its details. Small and specific localities have not been neglected.

It is with regard to the central region or the entire Gangetic valley that we have perhaps a very full and authentic account of ancient ethnic settlements. The distribution of tribes shows how Aryan occupation of the Gangetic basin i. e. the Mid-Indian region from the Himalayas to the Vindhyas which was traditionally called Madhya-deśa was completed: items of geographical information as contained in the texts reviewed, are found to be genuine piece of ancient tradition and not mostly new as has been noticed with regard to the Punjab. Of the names of the Central Division of our list which are assigned to the basins of the Ganges and the Yamuna, some are old peoples already familiar to us through Vedic and Post-Vedic literature. Ancient names like Kuru-Pañcāla, Käśī-Kośala, Sālva-Matsya and Vatsa are mentioned in accordance with the conventional notions of the past, but the accounts have been obviously made up to date by the incorporation of small and specific localities such as the Ujjihāna, Sāketa and Kāpiṣṭhala, and far more, by the inclusion of new names belonging to a later age such as the Bhadras, Uddehikas, Gudas, Kankas, Kalakotis and Kulyas. In fact, the texts of ethnographical geography of this region have a great merit in that though old, they have not neglected much that was new. Full and adequate notice has been taken of the existence of many new peoples, who had by that time crowded the fertile valleys of the Ganges, and old traditional knowledge has not been allowed to tamper or to suppress new facts of human establishments.

But in the eastern division, in Bengal and Assam, the attempt to uphold the traditional order has led to the neglect of some geographical features which though relatively new were widely current. Such names as Kāmarūpa, Varendra, Rādbā, Harikela, Candradvīpa, which we miss in the list, were undoubted omissions; and if these omissions were not due to a desire to conform to the conventional and classical order, they must have been due to defects in knowledge. But it may not be attributable to any defect in knowledge as the Karvatas, Cāndrapuras, Mudgaras, Antargiryas, Vahirgiryas, Mālavarttikas, Brah. mottaras, Pravijayas and Bhargavas (see chart) are not more ancient names, if not distinctly later in origin, than Kāmarūpa, Varendra etc. And as the latter set of names such as Kāmarūpa, Varendra, Harikela and Candradvipa were famous, and undoubtedly very viable social groups, their omission from the list can only be interpreted as merely conventional. The chronological argument, namely, that the original Bhuvanakoşa may have been compiled earlier than the emergence of these geographical names, also, cannot explain the incorporation of many unknown or less known geographical names of a later age as mentioned above, to the exclusion of the more famous ones, all of which were current perhaps in about the same age. This is an instance of the conventional notions of ancient writers.

But the most numerous were the settlements between the rivers Jumna and Krishna, and the tribes which have been distributed in that region are a pretty good number, which indicates that the habitats in that area must have been very heavy and population dense. Indeed, the accounts of this region leave this impression that the geographical knowledge of this part was full and complete in all its details. The large number of human groups distributed over the whole area consist of many old peoples, whose settlements existed there, and many new ones which sprang up later on; and it is this incorporation of much of the elements of later geography along with the old that has resulted in a detailed survey. Here, the accounts have not followed a strictly orthodox line by eliminating much that was new, nor have they departed from their conventional order by neglecting old features. So, along with Avanti, Vidarbha, Vidiśā, Aśmaka, and Daśārna, mention is made of principalities which were relatively new such as Mahārāstra, Kuntala, Karņāta and Konkaņa etc. Small and specific localities bearing a definite geographical sense are also

On a review of the whole geographical system as outlined, it becomes clear that the outlook of ancient Indian geographers was

mainly conventional, although at times they have shown almost surprising acquintance with many modern features not originally incorporated in the traditional order. This has led to curious results. One stratum of information is definitely old and the other modern. This discrepancy between old and new strata of information has its basis in the nature of the Puranas. The point about it is that, up. certain chronology of traditional texts makes it impossible to assign the geographical data to any particular period. The texts, for instance, refer to some very distinctly modern names such as Kailavata, Kanthadhāna, Kālakuta, Mudgara, Ruddhakataka, Katakasthala, Brahmottara, but very often give definite glimpses into the geographical ideas of a remote past, when Aryan civilisation had not yet overstepped the Vindhyas. And in many cases, the force of earlier tradition has been considerably weakened by embedded borrowings from later deposits. Necessarily, we are left in doubt whether we have in these texts a faithful picture of the geographical features of a later age, or a collection of a more or less quasi-historical names which are echoes from the Aryan lore of the early Vedic age.

Another peculiarity about these names is that the compilers in some cases have shown a preference for the ancient rather than the modern name of a particular place that was in actual use. This is an attitude which may be described as 'conventional'. Thus mention is made of Prāgjyotiṣa which stood for Assam, but not of Kāmrūpa another name of Assam, and known as such in the time of Samudragupta. Similarly, we get the names of Puṇḍra and Suhma, but not of Rāḍhā and Varendra. The use of the name of Videha is probably another instance. The Licchavis are the most outstanding of the constituent clans forming the Vajji federation; they appear and reappear on the stage of Indian history from the 6th century B. C. to 4th century A. D, and yet they are left out and the Videhas, who also belonged to the federation, are mentioned instead. These are some of the instances of conventional geography, but it will not be quite easy to decide the line between conventional and later geography.

Again, geographical fancies of an earlier age got mixed up with later geographical facts, and this mixture of old and new features has sometimes distorted the main situation and created confusion. The names have been handed down from author to author, and have been allowed to find their way in the texts without any regard to the political vicissitudes in the life of a tribe or its complete extinction. Thus the Pūrus, whose traditions are decidedly earlier, are mentioned and

they possibly lived in the vicinity of the Kuru country. At any rate. they must have been merged into a newer federation and lost their tribal identity, and so ethnographically at least they conveyed no meaning. Similar are the instances of the Vītihotras, Tundikeras. Nīpas, whose names at a later age did not convey any geographical meaning, but were simply memories of an early past. We have also the examples of the Salvas and Matsyas who are mentioned, but in a different list we find reference to the Yaudheyas and Arjunavanas, who as we have seen, lived within the Matsya country or in the vicinity of it. It is just likely that these peoples whose traditions were decidedly later, incorporated and absorbed the Matsyas and Salvas and followed them in their country. Here is, therefore, an instance, of how old and new traditions were in conflict with each other, and no clue is found as to how old peoples and tribes passed into oblivion and new tribes arose. Similarly the Vatsas, Madras, Trigartas, Kaikeyas, Śūrasenas, Aśmakas, Śivis and Gandharas most certainly represent the geographical conditions of a time considerably anterior to the time represented by such names as Anūpa, Dasapura, Purika, Mūlaka, Mahārāstra, Karnāta and Konkana etc. The peoples of an earlier age in most cases have been amalgamated by newer powers, in the process of the political and ethnic transformation that was going on.

But it cannot be said that traditional geography was altogether impervious to the changes that were coming upon the old tribal settlements and groupings owing to the impact of new forces. the Bharatas are no longer mentioned; and we find in the land which they held, the Kurus, and close to them, the Pañcālas. Similarly other Vedic peoples such as the Turvasas, Anus, Druhyas, Usinaras and Srñjavas disappear from history and are not noticed by tradition which may indicate that they were either amalgamated with other new tribes, or took new shapes under different names. The force of later tradition from a positive point of view is also manifest from the mention of many such names as the Sūlikas and Gaudas, who later on played an important political role. So judged from all these features, geographical traditions of ancient ethnic settlements, as embodied in the Puranas and astronomical works, p.esent us with a stage intermediate between the conventional notions of the past, and an intimate acquaintance with the far flung and numerous tribal establishments of a later age.

As the Epic, Puranic and Astronomical geography is professedly

concerned with the whole sub-continent, geography of ethnic settlements in ancient India may best be interpreted if we describe in a general way the chief natural divisions of India, and point to their ancient ethnic connections. The distribution of principal races thus sketched will also indicate in broad outline the course of traditional geography.

The eastern frontier of India is buttressed by a chain of ranges running in a general direction from north to south. From this eastern hill frontier, the level land known as Samatața stretched almost due west and embraced the plain of the great river Brahmaputra. The valley of Assam situated between the Garo and Khasi hills on the south, and the Himalayas on the north, was the land of the Pragjyotisas. The Pravijayas and the Bhargavas might have been some primitive hill tribes of the Assam mountains.

The delta of Bengal i. e. the great triangle of land which is enclosed by the Ganges (Padmā) pursuing a south-eastern course from the point where the Bhagirathi (Hughli), forming the western line of the delta bifurcates, had a geographical entity quite distinct from other Gangetic provinces. This easternmost Gangetic realm might have been in possession of the Vangas. To their west, on the other side of the Bhagirathi, lived the Suhmas and also the Gaudas whose territories even included the region to the north of the Ganges. To the west of the Gangetic delta, the plain enclosed by the Rajmahal hills on the east and the Son on the west, was the historic land of the famous Magadhas and their eastern neighbours the Angas. The hills and forests of Santal Parganas and the Chota Nagpur Division might have preserved large group of primitive tribes such as the Antargiryas, Vahirgiryas and Mallaparvatikas, while the famous republican tribes, such as the Licchavis, Mallas, Videhas and Jñātrikas settled in the country between the Ganges and the Tarai. On the south and south-east, the deltaic Bengal again descends into fertile lowlands along the sea-board of the Bay, and further south merges with the plain of the Mahanadi river—the land of the people variously called Utkalas or Udras. To the west of the Udras in the eastern portion of the Central Provinces, lived the Daksina Kośalas, and to their south, the Kalingas. A portion of Chota Nagpur to the north of Orissa might have been inhabited by the Pundras.

The broad belt of country full of hills and valleys which lies to the west of the Son along the line of the Jumna on the north, opens freely to Rajputana on the west. The peoples inhabiting there in ancient times were the Maladas, Kārūṣas, Pulindas and Chedis.

The wide region which lay to the west of Chedi country, encompassed by the Jumna, Chambal and the Narmada was the land of the Mālavas, Avantis, Vaidišas and Dašārņas. The long strip of the Chambal basin was also the home of many other tribes of antiquity. Between the Chambal, which connects the Vindhyas with the Jumna, and the Aravalli hills which run across Rajputana diagonally from the south-west to north-east as far as the ridge of Delhi, separating the desert plains of the north-west from the more fertile region of the south-east, there lived the ancient peoples of Rajputana, the different branches of whom were known to ancient writers under a variety of designations such as the Arimedhas, Kṣudramīnas, Mādhyamikas. Šivis, Mālavas, Dašapuras, Vṛkas, Šālvas, Matsyas, Ārjunāyanas, Yaudheyas, Āgnīdhras and Dāšerakas.

West of the Aravalli hills is the great Indian desert of Rajputana or the Thar which extends seaward. Ancient ethnic names such as the Māṇḍavyas, Kukuras and Marubhas are connected with this zone. Beyond the desert, in the basin of the lower Indus, lived the Sindhus; and further up where the five rivers of the Punjab gradually close together to from a single stream, the Sauvīras. Along the whole extent of the Sutlej in Bhawalpur, lived the Śūdras, and to their east in Sirsa the Ābhīras and the Niṣādas. To the south of the Thar, along the coast, runs a strip of alluvial plain which was called Aparānta. The peninsula of Kathiawar, separated from this coast line by the Gulf of Cambay, was the home the Ānartas and Saurāṣtras. The island of Cutch, lying between the Runn and Kathiawar was inhabited by the Kacchas.

The vast length of the Narbada valley was dotted with many big and minor settlements. On the south side of the Narbada, the Satpura range runs parallel with the Vindhyas. The eastern extremities of the two ranges end in the highlands of the Central Provinces which are associated with the settlements of the Tripuras and Mekalas. The broad alluvial flat between the Tapti and the Narmadā rivers was inhabited by the Māhiṣakas, Anūpas, Rṣikas and other minor stocks. South of the Tapti begins the Deccan plateau. Between the Tapti and the Godavari, particularly on the western half, lived the Nāsikas, Vaidarbhas, Mūlakas, and also the Aśmakas whose settlements covered even portions to the south of the Godavari. The land between the Godavari and the Krishna was the home of many other historic races such as the Andhras and the Mahārāṣṭras.

In the north, the famous Doab enclosed by the Jumna and by the corresponding portion of the foot-hills of the Himalayas, was the realm of the historic peoples of mid-India, the Kaśi-Kośalas. Kuru Paňcalas and Vasa-Usīnaras. The Jumna basin from the Dehra Dun to Agra was lined with many other minor settlements such as the Gudas, Kapisthalas, Pāndus and Sūrasenas. north of the Doab, the belt of the hill country of Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan corresponding to the foot-hills of the Himalayas, from the source of the Ganges as far as the frontiers of Assam, was in possession of many primitive tribes: but the Garhwal and Kumaun region was a favourite resort in particular of some ancient peoples such as the Bhadras, Brahmapuras and Tāmasas. The mountain slopes lying adjacent to the north-west of Garhwal, and intersected by the Sutlej and the other tributaries of the Indus were occupied by many Himalayan tribes of antiquity, such as the Sātakas, Kulūtas, Lahulas, Audumbaras, Mānahalas, Kohalas, Rājanyas, Kunahas etc.

The Himalayas occupy a dominant position in Indian geography and constitute a mighty natural barrier. But the mountain chain was pierced, and connections existed between the highland of Tibet and India, as notice has already been made of many mountain tribes such as the Kańkas, Kulindas, Khaśas, Tańganas who obviously lived in the Nari-Khorsum province of Tibet. Numerous tribes also lived in the deep valleys and passes leading to the north as is indicated by references to the patha countries.

In the west the Himalayan range is carried on by the Hindu Kush into the crest of the Iranian plateau. Persia, Afghanistan and Baluchistan collectively called the plateau of Iran, which reaches out on the north-east to the lofty Pamirs was inhabited in ancient times by an Indian population for many centuries after, as well as before, the invasion of Alexander. The Greek writers refer to the existence of the Indians in the Greek satrapies. Hiven Tsang's descriptions clearly show how Buddhism was established throughout the whole extent of the frontier regions. At the end of the 7th century the Muhammadans found idolaters at Kabul. It has been seen, that Indian traditions as embodied in the geographical data of the Purāņas and the Brhat-samhitā, know of a number of ethnic settlements of those regions. Such names as Jagudas, Kanthadhānas, Yasovatī, Vokkāņas, Jrigas and Kuruminas bear clear traces of Sanskrit names and refer to some ancient settlements in KabulKandahar and other western regions which indicate that in the early past the Iran plateau remained Indian in civilization down to the Muhammadan conquest and was in consequence included within the geographical boundaries of India. Further, the ethnographic tradition of the country to the north of the Iran plateau already sketched, strengthens the assumption that the basins of the Oxus and the Jaxartes were not excluded from the geographical system of ancient India.

To the east of the Iran plateau lies the plain of the Indus. Its northernmost part are the valleys of Gilgit and Chitral, where India merges with Iran and Turan. Here lived the Daradas, in whose country mountains were of surpassing height. Indeed, the mountains of Yasin and Chitral, which lie in the shape of an angle, appear like a "roof sheltering all India." The valleys diverge southeastwards in the upper reaches of the Indus in Kohistan and Hazara where lived the Kuhakas, Dārvas and Abhisāras. To the west of the upper stream of the Indus in the Swat basin were found many other peoples such as the Asmakas, Guruhas, Arimarddanas and Urnas, while to the east of Hazara in the Kasmir valley lived the Kāśmīras. Lower down Kasmir, lay the Indus valley with its five rivers called the Punjab and the Frontier Provinces which were covered with innumerable tribal principalities, as it was the country which every incoming stream of migration must have traversed. The more famous of the ancient peoples who lived in that river-plain were the Kaikeyas, Madras, Gandhāras, Sivis, Mālavas, Ksudrakas, Vasātis and Trigartas.

This is in main the geographical background of ancient ethnic settlement of northern India, Details about the activities of such human groups of ancient India can never be seen as clearly as necessary for a thorough study of the subject, but such activities must have been regulated by, and influenced, certain developments inevitable in the process. Firstly, it is necessary to remember that the settlements in ancient India were not a simple unitary process which was completed at one particular period. It was carried over several broad periods of time from the Vedic times onwards, Secondly, such settlements certainly led to modifications of geogra-

¹ CH. I. 326-27.

² Sir Thomas Holdich writes "Hindustan, to the medieval Arab, commenced at the Hindukush, and Kabul and Ghazni were 'Indian' frontier towns" (Gates of India, p. 226).

phical environments, and was indicative of the cultural and economic needs of that particular group of Indians. Purely wandering herdsmen, like the Pasupālas or Ghoṣas perhaps led a life of continual movement, but agriculturists like the Vaṅgas and Magadhas needed arable lands which led them to prefer fixed settlements. Hence social and economic, groupings, based upon the requirements of agriculture, necessarily conformed to the conditions of physical geography and of natural vegetation. This feature namely, how the needs of an agricultural tribe were negotiated to the conditions of the soil, must have been the main factor that governed the course of human geography of ancient India. The varied types of settlements, their distribution, the sites selected through careful consideration—all these aspects of settlement are of outstanding geographical interest.

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[Abbreviations used are C (Central Division), N (Northern Division), W (Western Division), E (Eastern Division), and so on. Figures within brackets refer to the number in the divisional list.]

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Page	Line	For	Read
11	35	it omits	· they omit
20	6 of fn. 2.	equatation	equation
29	fn. 2.	Saradatta	Saradaņķa
32	8	abundant	abundantly
44	14	Junegad	Junagadh
49	last line	Paithanikas	Paithanakas
		Petenikas	Petenikas
62	fn. 10.	Ramagrama	Ramagama
85	5 of fn. 1.	to	by
91	5 of fn. 5.	After 'right'	insert 'bank'
96	4	of	to
100	16	in	to
113	27	Täränath	Taranath and
			delete Comma
			after 'place'
124	13	After 'or'	lnsert 'to'
126	12	to	with and delete 'and'
136	5 of fn.	CRVOIAD	cavern
139	No. 8	Ladadas	Labadas
162	22	refers the	refers to the
163	13	Nalanda	Nālandā
168	4 of fn. 3.	Kh ād	Khādī